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Chapter 1

List of mythological objects

Mythological objects (also known as *mythical objects*, *mythic objects*, or even *god weapons* in some cases) encompass a variety of items (e.g. weapons, armor, clothing) appearing in world mythologies. This list will be organized according to category of object.

This list is incomplete; you can help by expanding it.

1.1 Armor

- Armor of Karna, known as Kavacha, and was impenetrable even to heavenly weapons. (Hindu mythology)
- Armor of Achilles, created by Hephaestus and said to be impenetrable. (Greek mythology)
- **Armor of Beowulf**, made by Wayland the Smith.
- Green Armor protected the wearer from physical injuries. (Arthurian legend)

1.1.1 Headgear

- Helmet of Rostam, upon which was fixed the head of the white giant Div-e-Sepid, from the Persian epic Shahnameh.
- **Helm of Darkness** (also *Cap of Invisibility*), created by the Cyclopes for Hades. It made the wearer invisible. Also used by Perseus. (Greek mythology)
- **Tarnhelm**, a helmet giving the wearer the ability to change form or become invisible. Used by Alberich in Der Ring des Nibelungen.
- Goswhit, the helmet of King Arthur, passed down to him from Uther Pendragon. (Arthurian legend)
- Crown of Immortality, represented in art first as a laurel wreath and later as a symbolic circle of stars. The Crown appears in a number of Baroque iconographic and allegoric works of art to indicate the wearer's immortality.

1.1.2 Shields

- Aegis, Zeus' shield, often loaned to his daughter Athena, also used by Perseus. (Greek mythology)
- Ancile, the shield of the Roman god Mars. One divine shield fell from heaven during the reign of Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome. He ordered eleven copies made to confuse would-be thieves. (Roman mythology)

- **Priwen**, the shield of King Arthur. (Arthurian legend)
- Shield of Achilles, the shield that Achilles uses in his fight with Hector. (Greek mythology)
- Shield of Ajax, a huge shield made of seven cow-hides with a layer of bronze. (Greek mythology)
- Shield of Joseph of Arimathea, according to Arthurian legend it was carried by three maidens to Arthur's castle where it was discovered by Sir Percival. In Perlesvaus he uses it to defeat the Knight of the Burning Dragon. (Arthurian legend)
- Shield of Judas Maccabee, a red shield emblazoned with a golden eagle. According to Arthurian legend the same shield was later found and used by Gawain after he defeated an evil knight.
- Shield of El Cid, according to the epic poem *Carmen Campidoctoris*, bears the image of a fierce shining golden dragon.*[1]
- **Shield of Evalach**, a white shield belonging to king Evalach. Josephus of Arimathea painted a red cross upon it with his own blood, which granted the owner heavenly protection. It was later won by Sir Galahad.
- Svalinn, a shield which stands before the sun and protects earth from burning. (Norse mythology)
- **Shield of Vishnu**, Srivatsa, a symbol worshiped and revered by the Hindus, said to be manifested in the god's chest. (Hindu mythology)

1.2 Weapons

- Carnwennan (*Little White-Hilt*), the dagger of King Arthur. It is sometimes attributed with the magical power to shroud its user in shadow, it was used by Arthur to slice the Very Black Witch in half. (Arthurian legend)
- Cronus' scythe, Cronus castrated his father Uranus using an Adamant sickle given to him by his mother Gaea. (Greek mythology)
- **Death's scythe**, a large scythe appearing in the hands of the Grim Reaper. This stems mainly from the Christian Biblical belief of death as a "harvester of souls".
- **Pashupatastra**, an irresistible and most destructive personal weapon of Shiva and Kali, discharged by the mind, the eyes, words, or a bow. (Hindu mythology)
- Varunastra, a water weapon (a storm) according to the Indian scriptures, incepted by Varuna. In stories it is said to assume any weapon's shape, just like water. (Hindu mythology)
- **Astra**, a supernatural weapon, presided over by a specific deity. To summon or use an astra required knowledge of a specific incantation/invocation, when armed. (Hindu mythology)
- Sling-stone (also *cloich tabaill*), was used by Lugh to slay his grandfather, Balor the Strong-Smiter in the Cath Maige Tuired according to the brief accounts in the Lebor Gabála Érenn. (Irish mythology)

1.2.1 Swords

- Asi, a legendary sword mentioned in the epic Mahabharata.
- Pattayudha, Divine Sword of Lord Veerabhadra Commander of Lord Shiva's Armies. (Hindu mythology)
- Crocea Mors, the sword of Julius Caesar and later Nennius according to the legends presented by Geoffrey of Monmouth.
- Gan Jiang and Mo Ye, the legendary Chinese twin swords named after their creators.

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- Harpe, the sword used by Perseus to decapitate Medusa. (Greek mythology)
- Thuận Thiên, also known as Heaven's Will, was the sword of Vietnamese King Le Loi.
- Keris Mpu Gandring, the cursed Empu Gandring for Ken Arok. Not yet finished but had been used and killed the beloved ones of the user.
- Kladenets, a magic sword in Russian and Slavic mythology. Probably inspired by the sword of the god Swentowit.
- Kusanagi-no-tsurugi (Japanese: 草薙の剣) (also known as *Ama-no-Murakumo-no-Tsurugi* (天叢雲剣) or *Tsumu-gari no Tachi* Japanese: 都牟刈の太刀), sword of the Japanese god Susanoo, later given to his sister Amaterasu. It is one of three Imperial Regalia of Japan. (Japanese mythology)
- Sword of Attila, the legendary sword that was wielded by Attila the Hun; claimed to have originally been the sword of Mars, the Roman god of war.*[2]
- Sword of Peleus, a magic sword that makes its wielder victorious in the battle or the hunt. (Greek mythology)
- Taming Sari, the Kris belonging to the Malay warrior Hang Tuah of the Malacca Sultanate.
- Shamshir-e Zomorrodnegar (Persian: شمشی ز زاردن گار), "The emerald-studded Sword" in the Persian mythical story Amir Arsalan. The hideous horned demon called Fulad-zereh was invulnerable to all weapons except the blows of Shamshir-e Zomorrodnegar. This blade originally belonged to King Solomon.
- Totsuka-no-Tsurugi, the sword Susanoo used to slay the Yamata no Orochi.
- Jokulsnaut, a sword belonging to Grettir which was later given to his brother Atli. (Sagas of Icelanders)
- Flaming Sword is a sword glowing with flame by some supernatural power.
- The Glory of Ten Powers is a legendary Chinese sword, allegedly forged in Tibet by husband-and-wife magicians
 of the ancient Bön tradition.
- **Egeking** is a sword in the medieval poem Greysteil. Sir Graham obtains the sword 'Egeking' from Eger's aunt, Sir Egram's Lady.
- Kris Mpu Gandring is a cursed kris of Ken Arok, the unfinished or incomplete kris would kill seven men, including Ken Arok.
- Kris Taming Sari (*Flower Shield*), one of the most well-known kris in Malay literature, said to be so skilfully crafted that anyone wielding it was unbeatable.
- Kris Setan Kober belong to Arya Penangsang, the mighty viceroy (adipati) of Jipang who was killed by his own kris called Setan Kober ("devil of the grave"). Forged by Empu Bayu Aji in the kingdom of Pajajaran, and had 13 luk on its blade.
- Cura Si Manjakini, a sword mentioned in the legends of the Malay Annals as originally possessed by Sang Sapurba, the legendary ancestor of Malay kings.
- Orna, the sword of the Fomorian king Tethra, which recounts the deeds done with it when unsheathed. It was taken by Ogma and it then recounted everything it had done. (Irish mythology)

Swords from Celtic mythology

- Caladbolg (also Caladcholg), the sword of Fergus mac Róich and powerful enough to cut the tops off three hills; related to the Caledfwlch of Welsh mythology.
- Caledfwlch, often compared to Excalibur. This sword is used by Llenlleawg Wyddel to kill Diwrnach Wyddel and his men.
- Ceard-nan Gallan, the Smith of the Branches, sword of Oisín.

- Claíomh Solais (Sword of Light), the sword of Nuada Airgeadlámh.
- Cosgarach Mhor, the Great Triumphant One, sword of Oscar.
- Cruadh-Chosgarach, the Hard Destroying One, sword of Cailte mac Rónáin.
- **Dyrnwyn**, the Sword of Rhydderch.
- Fragarach (also *Sword of Air*, *Answerer* or *Retaliator*), forged by the gods, wielded by Manannán mac Lir and Lugh Lamfada. No armor could stop it, and it would grant its wielder command over the powers of wind.
- Mac an Luin, the Son of the Waves, sword of Fionn mac Cumhaill.
- Moralltach (*Great Fury*) and Beagalltach (*Little Fury*), swords given to Diarmuid Ua Duibhne by his father Aengus.
- Singing Sword of Conaire Mór.

Swords from Continental Germanic mythology

- Mimung, sword that Wudga inherits from his father Wayland the Smith.
- Nagelring, the sword of Dietrich von Bern.
- Nothung, the sword from *Die Walküre*, wielded by Siegfried the hero of the Nibelungenlied.
- Blodgang (also Burtgang), the sword of Háma.

Swords from Anglo-Saxon mythology

- Hrunting, the magical sword lent to Beowulf by Unferth.
- Nægling, the other magical sword of Beowulf. Found in the cave of Grendel's mother.*[3]

Swords from the Matter of Britain

- Arondight, Lancelot's sword.
- Clarent, a sword of peace meant for knighting and ceremonies as opposed to battle, which was stolen and then
 used to kill Arthur by Mordred.
- Coreiseuse (wrathful), The sword of King Ban, Lancelot's father.
- Excalibur (also Caluburn, Caledfwlch, Calesvol, Kaledvoulc'h, Caliburnus), sometimes attributed with magical powers or associated with the rightful sovereignty of Great Britain. Stated that it was forged in the Isle of Avalon.
- Galatine, the name of the sword given to Sir Gawain by the Lady of the Lake.
- Grail Sword, a cracked holy sword which Sir Percival bonded back together, though the crack remained.
- Secace, The sword that Lancelot used to battle the Saxons at Saxon Rock. It is translated as Seure (Sequence) in the Vulgate Cycle.
- **Sword in the Stone**, a sword in the Arthurian legend which only the rightful king of Britain can pull from the stone; sometimes associated with Excalibur.
- Sword with the Red Hilt, One of the swords wielded by Sir Balin. After his death, Merlin sealed it in the float stone where it remained until it was drawn by Sir Galahad.

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Swords from Norse mythology

- Angurvadal, a magical sword of Frithiof.
- Dáinsleif is king Högni's sword, according to Snorri Sturluson's account of the battle known as the Hjaðningavíg.
- Freyr's Sword, Freyr's magic sword which fought on its own. It might be Lævateinn.
- **Gram**, the sword that Odin struck into the Branstock tree which only Sigmund the Völsung was able to pull out. It broke in battle with Odin but was later reforged by Sigmund's son Sigurd and used it to slay the dragon Fafnir. After being reforged, it could cleave an anvil in half.
- Hofuð, the sword of Heimdallr, the guardian of Bifröst.
- **Hrotti**, the sword is mentioned in the Völsung cycle. It was part of Fáfnir's treasure, which Sigurðr took after he slew the dragon.
- Lævateinn, a sword mentioned in an emendation to the Poetic Edda Fjölsvinnsmál by Sophus Bugge.
- Legbiter, the sword of Magnus III of Norway.
- Mistilteinn, the magical sword of Prainn, the draugr, later owned by Hromundr Gripsson.
- Quern-biter, sword of Haakon I of Norway and his follower, Thoralf Skolinson the Strong, said to be sharp enough to cut through quernstones.
- Ridill (also Refil), sword of the dwarf Regin.
- Skofnung, a sword with mythical properties associated with the legendary Danish king Hrólf Kraki.
- **Tyrfing** (also *Tirfing* or *Tyrving*), the cursed sword of Svafrlami, from the *Elder Edda*; also said to be the sword of Odin in Richard Wagner's works.

Swords from the Matter of France

- Almace (also Almice or Almacia), sword of Turpin, Archbishop of Reims.
- Balisarda, the sword of Rogero from Orlando Furioso.
- Courtain (also Curtana or Cortana in Italian), first of the two magical swords of Ogier the Dane, a legendary Danish hero.
- **Durendal** (also *Durandal* or *Durlindana* in Italian), the sword of Roland, one of Charlemagne's paladins, (Orlando in medieval Italian verse) —alleged to be the same sword as the one wielded by Hector of Ilium.
- Froberge, the sword of Renaud de Montauban.
- Hauteclere (also *Halteclere*), the sword of Olivier.
- Joyeuse, sword of Charlemagne.
- Murgleys (also Murgleis), sword of Ganelon, traitor and cousin of Roland.
- Précieuse, sword of Baligant, Emir of Babylon.
- Sauvagine, second of the two magical swords of Ogier the Dane.

Swords from Spanish mythology

- Tizona, the sword of El Cid, it frightens unworthy opponents, as shown in the heroic poem Cantar de Mio Cid.*[4]
- Colada, the other sword of El Cid.*[5]
- Lobera, the sword of the king Saint Ferdinand III of Castile, inheritance of the epic hero Fernán González, according to Don Juan Manuel, Prince of Villena.*[6]

1.2.2 Spears

- Amenonuhoko (*Heavenly Jewelled Spear*), the naginata used by the Shinto deities Izanagi and Izanami to create the world also called *tonbogiri*. (Japanese mythology)
- Aram, the spear of Jangar. (Mongol mythology)
- Ascalon, the spear that St. George used to kill the dragon.
- Gáe Buide (Yellow Shaft) and the Gáe Derg (Red Javelin), spears of Diarmuid Ua Duibhne, could inflict wound that none can recover from.
- Gáe Bulg, the spear of Cú Chulainn.
- Gungnir, Odin's magic spear created by the dwarf Dvalinn.
- Lance of Olyndicus, the celtiberians' war chief who fought against Rome. According to Florus, he wielded a silver lance that was sent to him by the gods from the sky.*[7]
- Lug's Spear, an insuperable spear.
- Lúin of Celtchar (Spear of Fire or Spear of Destiny), a spear forged by the Smith of Falias for Lugh to use in his fight against Balor.
- Nihongo, is one of three legendary Japanese spears created by the famed swordsmith Masazane Fujiwara. A famous spear that was once used in the Imperial Palace. Nihongo later found its way into the possession of Masanori Fukushima, and then Tahei Mori.
- Otegine, is one of three legendary Japanese spears created by the famed swordsmith Masazane Fujiwara.
- **Rhongomiant**, the spear of King Arthur that he used to defeat the legendary Sir Thomas of Wolford. (Arthurian legend)
- Sha Wujing's Yuèyáchǎn, a double-headed staff with a crescent-moon (yuèyá) blade at one end and a spade (chǎn) at the other, with six xīzhàng rings in the shovel part to denote its religious association.
- Spear of Achilles, created by Hephaestus and given to Peleus at his wedding with Thetis.
- **Tonbogiri**, is one of three legendary Japanese spears created by the famed swordsmith Masazane Fujiwara, said to be wielded by the legendary daimyō Honda Tadakatsu. The spear derives its name from the myth that a dragonfly landed on its blade and was instantly cut in two. Thus Tonbo (Japanese for "dragonfly") and giri (Japanese for "cutting"), translating this spear's name as "Dragonfly Cutter/Cutting spear".
- **Bident**, a two-pronged implement resembling a pitchfork. In classical mythology, the bident is associated with Pluto/Hades, the ruler of the underworld. (Greek mythology)
- **Kongō**, A trident-shaped staff which emits a bright light in the darkness, and grants wisdom and insight. The staff belonged originally to the Japanese mountain god Kōya-no-Myōjin. It is the equivalent of the Sanskrit **Vajra**, the indestructible lightning-diamond pounder of the king of the gods/rain-god Indra. There the staff represents the three flames of the sacrificial fire, part of the image of the vajra wheel.

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• **Poseidon's trident**, used to create horses and some water sources in Greece. It could cause earthquakes when struck on the ground. (Greek mythology)

- **Trishula**, the trident of Shiva, stylized by some as used as a missile weapon and often included a crossed stabilizer to facilitate flight when thrown. Considered to be the most powerful weapon. (Hindu mythology)
- **Holy Lance**, also called the Spear of Longinus, is the name given to the lance that pierced the side of Jesus as he hung on the cross, according to the Gospel of John.
- Vel, a divine javelin associated with Hindu war god Karthikeya. (Hindu mythology)
- **Gae Assail** (*Spear of Assal*), the spear of Lugh, the incantation "Ibar (Yew)" made the cast always hit its mark, and "Athibar (Re-Yew)" caused the spear to return. (Irish mythology)
- **Areadbhair**, belonged to Pisear, king of Persia. Its tip had to be kept immersed in a pot of water to keep it from igniting, a property similar to the Lúin of Celtchar. (Irish mythology)
- Crann Buidhe, the spear of Manannán. (Irish mythology)

1.2.3 Bows

- Pinaka, the great bow of Shiva, arrows fired from the bow could not be intercepted. (Hindu mythology)
- **Vijaya** (also *Vijaya Dhanush*), the bow of Karna, one of the greatest hero of the Hindu epic, Mahabharata. (Hindu Mythology)
- Apollo's bow, which could cause health or cause famine and death in sleep. (Greek/Roman mythology)
- Artemis' bow, crafted by moonlight and silver wood or made of gold. (Greek/Roman mythology)
- Brahmastra, a bow created by Brahma. (Hindu mythology)
- Cupid's bow, which, along with dove- and owl-fletched arrows, could cause one to love or hate (respectively) the person he/she first saw after being struck. (Roman mythology)
- Fail-not, the bow of Tristan. It was said to never miss its mark. (Arthurian legend)
- Gandiva, created by Brahma and given by Varuna to Arjuna on Agni's request and used by Arjuna during the Kurukshetra war.
- Heracles's bow, which also belonged to Philoctetes, its arrows had the Lernaean Hydra poison. (Greek mythology)
- Kodandam, Rama's bow. (Hindu mythology)
- Eurytus' bow, Eurytus became so proud of his archery skills that he challenged Apollo. The god killed Eurytus for his presumption, and Eurytus' bow was passed to Iphitus, who later gave the bow to his friend Odysseus. It was this bow that Odysseus used to kill the suitors who had wanted to take his wife, Penelope. (Greek mythology)
- Shiva Dhanush (*Shiva's bow*), a bow given by Shiva to Janaka and broken by Rama during Sita's swayamvara. (Hindu mythology)
- Sharanga, the bow of the Hindu God Vishnu. (Hindu mythology)
- Ichaival, a bow possessed by Odin. Another source said it was came from Ydalir, the home of the god Ullr. It possessed the power of each pull of just one arrow, it will release ten arrows. (Norse mythology)
- Kaundinya's bow, a magic bow wielded by the Brahman Kaundinya, who used it to make the Naga princess Mera fall in love with him.*[8]

1.2.4 Rods and Staves

- Caduceus, the staff carried by Hermes or Mercury. It is a short staff entwined by two serpents, sometimes surmounted by wings, and symbolic of commerce. (Greek mythology)
- Gambanteinn, appears in two poems in the Poetic Edda. (Norse mythology)
- **Gríðarvölr**, an magical staff given to Thor so he could kill the giant Geirröd. (Norse mythology)
- Rod of Asclepius, a serpent-entwined rod wielded by the Greek god Asclepius, a deity associated with healing and medicine. (Greek mythology)
- Ruyi Jingu Bang, the staff of Sun Wukong; the staff of the Monkey King could alter its size from a tiny needle to a mighty pillar.
- **Thyrsus**, a staff tipped with a pine cone and entwined with ivy leaves. These staffs were carried by Dionysus and his followers. (Greek mythology)

1.2.5 Axes and Hammers

- Axe of Perun, the axe wielded by the Slavic god of thunder and lightning, Perun. (Slavic mythology)
- **Mjölnir**, the magic hammer of Thor. It was invulnerable and when thrown it would return to the user's hand. (Norse mythology)
- Ukonvasara, the symbol and magical weapon of the Finnish thunder god Ukko, and was similar to Thor's Mjölnir.
 (Finnish mythology)
- Uchide no kozuchi, a legendary Japanese "magic hammer" which can "tap out" anything wished for. In popular belief, magic wooden hammer is a standard item held in the hand of the iconic deity Daikoku-ten. (Japanese folklore)
- Parashu, the battle-axe of Shiva who gave it to Parashurama. (Hindu mythology)
- The Hammer of Hephaestus, The hammer of the Greek smith-god Hephaestus which was used to make the Greek gods weapons. It was also seen as an axe on various Greek pots and vases where Hephaestus was seen carrying it, usually riding on a donkey. (Greek mythology)

1.2.6 Clubs

- Sharur, the enchanted mace of the Sumerian god Ninurta. It can fly unaided and also may communicate with its wielder. (Ancient Mesopotamian religion)
- Yagrush and Ayamur, two clubs created by Kothar and used by Baal to defeat Yam. (Phoenician mythology)
- Indravarman III's metalwood bat is a legendary bat, wielded by a Cambodian emperor.*[9]
- Kaladanda, the staff of Death*[10] is a special and lethal club used by God Yama or God of Naraka or Hell in Hindu mythology. It is very ferocious weapon. It was once granted by Brahma or God of creation. It was ultimate weapon, once fired would kill anybody before it. No matter what boons he had to protect himself.
- Club of Dagda, this magic club was supposed to be able to kill nine men with one blow; but with the handle he could return the slain to life. (Irish Mythology)
- Gada, the main weapon of the Hindu god Hanuman, an avatara of Shiva. (Hindu Mythology)

1.3. CLOTHING 9

1.2.7 Projectile Weapons

• **Brahmastra**, described in a number of the Puranas, it was considered the deadliest weapon. It was said that when the Brahmastra was discharged, there was neither a counterattack nor a defense that could stop it. (Hindu mythology)

- Narayanastra, the personal missile of Vishnu in his Narayana or Naraina form. (Hindu mythology)
- Sudarshana Chakra, a legendary spinning disc like weapon used by the Hindu God Vishnu. (Hindu mythology)
- Thunderbolt of Zeus, given to him by the Cyclops in Greek mythology, or by Vulcan in Roman mythology.
- Vajra, the lightning bolts of Indra. (Hindu mythology)
- Xiuhcoatl, a lightning-like weapon borne by Huitzilopochtli. (Aztec religion)
- Holly Dart, Baldr is killed by a holly dart gotten from his mischievous brother Loki. (Norse mythology)
- Arrow of Brahma, the demi-god Rama faced the demon king of Sri-Lanka, Ravana. Rama fired the arrow of Brahma that had been imparted to him by Agastya. The arrow of Brahma burst Ravana's navel, and returned to Rama's quiver. (Hindu mythology)
- Tathlum, the missile fired by Lugh from the Sling-stone. (Irish mythology)
- **Sagitta**, regarded as the weapon that Hercules used to kill the eagle Aquila that perpetually gnawed Prometheus' liver. (Greek mythology)

1.3 Clothing

- **Aphrodite's Magic Girdle**, a magic material that made whoever the wearer desired fall in love with them. (Greek mythology)
- Babr-e Bayan, the mythical coat worn by the Persian legendary hero Rostam in combat.
- Falcon Cloak, owned by Freyja, it allows the wielder to turn into a falcon and fly.
- **Girdle of Hippolyta**, sometimes called a magical girdle and sometimes a magical belt. It was a symbol of Hippolyta's power over the Amazons; given to her by Ares. Heracles' 9th Labor was to retrieve it. (Greek mythology)
- Hide of Leviathan was supposedly able to be turned into everlasting clothing or impenetrable suits of armor.
- **Hide of the Nemean lion**, the golden fur Heracles earned by overcoming the Nemean lion, was supposedly able to endure every weapon and was unbreakable. (Greek mythology)
- Mantle of Arthur (also *Llen Arthyr yng Nghernyw*), whoever was under it could not be seen, and he could see everyone. One of the Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain.
- Pais Badarn Beisrydd, The Coat of Padarn Red-Coat: if a well-born man put it on, it would be the right size for him; if a churl, it would not go upon him. One of the Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain.
- Shoes of Víðarr, these shoes gave the god Vidar unparalleled foot protection. (Norse mythology)
- Talaria, Hermes's winged sandals which allowed him to fly. (Greek mythology)
- Tarnkappe, Sigurd's magical cloak that made the wearer invisible. (Norse mythology)
- **Ŏusībùyúnlǔ** (*Cloud-stepping Boots* or *Cloud-stepping Shoes*), made of lotus fiber, these are one of the treasures of the Dragon Kings; Ào Ming gives them to Sun Wukong in order to get rid of him when he acquires the Ruyi Jingu Bang. (Chinese mythology)

- Seven-league boots from European folklore were said to allow the wearer to make strides of seven leagues in length.
- **Shirt of Nessus** is the poisoned shirt that killed Heracles. (Greek mythology)
- Fast-walker Boots (сапоги-скороходы), allows the person wearing them to walk and run at an amazing pace.
 (Russian folklore)
- Helskór (Hel-shoes), were put on the dead so that they could go to Valhöll. (Norse mythology)
- **Tyet** is an ancient Egyptian symbol of the goddess Isis. It seems to be called "the Knot of Isis" because it resembles a knot used to secure the garments that the Egyptian gods wore (also tet, buckle of Isis, girdle of Isis, and the blood of Isis). (Egyptian mythology)
- Megingjörð (*Power-belt*), a magic belt worn by the god Thor. (Norse mythology)
- **Járngreipr** (*Iron Grippers*), a pair of iron gauntlets of the god Thor. (Norse mythology)
- Swan Cloak, a magic robe made of swan feathers belonging to a swan maiden.

1.4 Jewellery

1.4.1 Necklaces

- **Brísingamen**, the necklace of the goddess Freyja. (Norse mythology)
- Necklace of Harmonia, allowed any woman wearing it to remain eternally young and beautiful, but also brought great misfortune to all of its wearers or owners. It was made by Hephaestus and given to Harmonia, the daughter of Aphrodite and Ares, as a curse on the House of Thebes for Aphrodite's infidelity. (Greek mythology)
- Necklace of the Lady of the Lake, a jeweled necklace given to Sir Pelleas after assisting an old woman across a river. It was enchanted so that its wearer would be unfathomably loved. Its true name is unknown.
- Yasakani no Magatama, a bejeweled necklace of magatamas offered to Amaterasu. One of three Sacred Imperial Relics of Japan. It represents benevolence. (Japanese mythology)

1.4.2 Rings

- Andvaranaut, a magical ring capable of producing gold, first owned by Andvari. (Norse mythology)
- Draupnir, a golden arm ring possessed by Odin. The ring was a source of endless wealth. (Norse mythology)
- **Ring of Dispel**, a ring given to Sir Lancelot by the Lady of the Lake which could dispel any enchantment. In Le Chevalier de la Charrette it is given to him by a fairy instead. He used the ring to cross the Sword Bridge.
- Ring of Mudarra, the ring that Gonzalo Bustos breaks in two pieces to later on recognize his future son. When Mudarra joins the two halves, it becomes again a complete ring and Gonzalo Bustos heals his blindness, as shown in the epic poem *Cantar de los siete infantes de Lara.**[11]
- Ring of Gyges, a mythical magical artifact that granted its owner the power to become invisible at will. (Greek mythology)
- Seal of Solomon, a magical brass or steel ring that could imprison demons. (Judeo-Christian mythology)
- Svíagris, Adils' prized ring in the Hrólfr Kraki's saga. (Norse mythology)

1.5. VEHICLES

1.5 Vehicles

1.5.1 Airborne

- Dandu Monara, king Ravana's flying machine in Ramayana.
- Flying carpet, the magic carpet from Tangu in Persia.
- Flying mortar and pestle of Baba Yaga, she flies around in a mortar and wields a pestle. (Slavic Mythology)
- Flying Throne of Kai Kavus was an eagle-propelled craft built by the Persian king Kay Kāvus, used for flying the king all the way to China.
- Vimana is a mythological flying machine from the Sanskrit epics, of Hindu origin.
- Roth Rámach (lit. *Rowing Wheel*) is the magical flying machine of Mug Ruith, a mythological Irish Druid who along with his feathered headdress (the encennach), hovers across the skies. (Irish Mythology)
- **Flying Canoe**, when French settlers arrived in Canada, they swapped stories with the natives and the tale of Gallery was combined with an Indian legend about a flying canoe. (Canadian folklore)

1.5.2 Ships

- **Argo**, the ship on which Jason and the Argonauts sailed. She contained in her prow a magical piece of timber from the sacred forest of Dodona, which could speak and render prophecies. (Greek mythology)
- Caleuche, a mythical ghost ship of the Chilote mythology and local folklore of the Chiloé Island, in Chile. (Chilote mythology)
- Canoe of Gluskab, able to expand so it could hold an army or shrink to fit in the palm of your hand. (Abenaki mythology)
- Canoe of Māui, it became the South Island of New Zealand. (Māori mythology)
- Ellida, a magic dragon ship given to Víking as a gift by Aegir. (Norse mythology)
- Hringhorni, is the name of the ship of the god Baldr, described as the "greatest of all ships". (Norse mythology)
- Naglfar, a ship made out of fingernails and toenails of the dead. It will set sail during Ragnarök. (Norse mythology)
- **Sessrúmnir**, is both the goddess Freyja's hall located in Fólkvangr, a field where Freyja receives half of those who die in battle, and also the name of a ship. (Norse mythology)
- Skíðblaðnir, a boat owned by Freyr. (Norse mythology)
- **Guingelot**, Thomas Speght, an editor or Chaucer's works from the end of 16th century, made a passing remark that "Concerning Wade and his bote called Guingelot, and also his strange exploits in the same.
- The Preserver of Life was the ship built in the Epic of Gilgamesh by Utnapishtim and the craftspeople of his village at the request of Enki Ea to hold his wife and relatives, as well as the village craftspeople, the animals to be saved, and various grains and seeds.
- Mandjet (Boat of Millions of Years), one of two solar boats. A boat that carries the resurrected king with the sun god Ra across the heavens. (Egyptian mythology)
- Mesektet, the evening boat is one of two solar boats. (Egyptian mythology)
- Wave Sweeper, a magic boat belonging to Lugh. (Irish mythology)
- Flying Dutchman, a legendary ghost ship that can never make port and is doomed to sail the oceans forever. (Nautical folklore)
- Mannigfual, the ship of the giants. (Norse mythology)

1.5.3 Chariots

- **Poseidon's chariot**, was pulled by a hippocampus or by horses that could ride on the sea. (Greek mythology)
- **Helios' chariot**, the golden chariot driven across the sky by the Greek sun god Helios and sometimes Apollo. (Greek mythology)
- Thor's chariot, driven across the sky by Thor and pulled by his two goats Tanngrisnir and Tanngnjóstr. (Norse mythology)
- Vitthakalai, a gold-decorated chariot of Kali. (Ayyavazhi mythology)
- Freyja's chariot, a chariot pulled by cats. (Norse mythology)
- Selene's chariot, driven across the night sky by the moon goddess Selene and sometimes Artemis. (Greek mythology)
- Sól's chariot, drawn by Árvakr and Alsviðr across the sky each day. (Norse mythology)
- Sol Invictus' chariot, depicted riding a quadriga on the reverse of a Roman coin. (Roman mythology)
- Surya's chariot, a chariot drawn by seven horses. (Hindu mythology)

1.6 Treasures

- Four Treasures of the Tuatha Dé Danann (also *Hallows of Ireland*), consisting of the Claíomh Solais, Lug's Spear, Cauldron of the Dagda, and the Lia Fáil.
- Three Sacred Treasures of Japan, consisting of the Kusanagi (see above), the jewel necklace Yasakani no magatama, and the mirror Yata no Kagami.
- Karun Treasure, said to belong to King Croesus of Lydia. (Persian mythology)
- Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain. (Matter of Britain)

1.6.1 Relics

- Pandora's box, the sealed box that contained all the evils of mankind. (Greek mythology)
- Relics of Jesus.
- Yata no Kagami, a mirror offered to the goddess of the sun, Amaterasu in Japanese mythology. One of three Sacred Imperial Relics of Japan. It represents Wisdom.
- Holy Grail, a dish, plate, stone, or cup that is part of an important theme of Arthurian literature. (Arthurian legend)
- Agimat, is a Filipino word for "amulet" or "charm".
- Kaustubha is a divine jewel or "Mani", which is in the possession of Lord Vishnu. (Hindu mythology)

1.7. BOOKS 13

1.7 Books

• **Book of Thoth** is a legendary book containing powerful spells and knowledge supposed to have been written by the god Thoth, said to have been buried with the Prince Neferkaptah in Necropolis. (Egyptian mythology)

- Jade Books in Heaven are described in several Daoist cosmographies.
- Sibylline Books are described to have helped Rome in many situations.
- Rauðskinna (*Book of Power*), a legendary book about black magic, alleged to have been buried with its author, the Bishop Gottskálk grimmi Nikulásson of Holar. (Scandinavian folklore)
- Tablet of Destiny is mentioned in Mesopotamian mythology as a set of clay tablets which hold the power of creation and destruction.

1.8 Stones

- Baetylus, a sacred stone which was supposedly endowed with life. (Greek mythology)
- **Cintamani** (also *Chintamani Stone*), a wish-fulfilling jewel within both Hindu and Buddhist traditions, equivalent to the philosopher's stone in Western alchemy.
- Philosopher's stone, it could turn lead into gold.
- Sessho-seki, a stone that kills anyone who comes into contact with it.
- Stone of Giramphiel, a stone described in Diu Crône. Sir Gawain wins from the knight Fimbeus and it offers him protection against the fiery breath of dragons and the magic of the sorcerer Laamorz.
- **Singasteinn** (Old Norse *singing stone* or *chanting stone*), an object that appears in the account of Loki and Heimdallr's fight in the form of seals. (Norse mythology)
- Llech Ronw (also *Slate of Gron*), a holed stone located along Afon Bryn Saeth in Blaenau Ffestiniog, Wales. The stone is described as being roughly forty inches by thirty inches with a hole of about an inch in diameter going through it.
- Adder stone were believed to have magical powers such as protection against eye diseases or evil charms, preventing
 nightmares, curing whooping cough, the ability to see through fairy or witch disguises and traps if looked at through
 the middle of the stone, and of course recovery from snakebite.
- **Lyngurium** (also *Ligurium*), the name of a mythical gemstone believed to be formed of the solidified urine of the lynx (the best ones coming from wild males).
- **Toadstone** (also *Bufonite*), a mythical stone or gem thought to be found in, or produced by, a toad, and is supposed to be an antidote to poison.
- Stone of Scone (also Stone of Destiny), an oblong block of red sandstone.
- **Sledovik**, a most widespread type of sacred stones, venerated in Slavic (Russian, Belarussian, Ukrainian) and Uralic (Karela, Merya) pagan practices.
- Lia Fáil (also *Stone of Destiny*) is a stone at the Inauguration Mound on the Hill of Tara in County Meath, Ireland. In legend, all of the kings of Ireland were crowned on the stone up to Muirchertach mac Ercae c. AD 500.
- Thunderstone, throughout Europe, Asia, and Polynesia flint arrowheads and axes turned up by farmer's plows are considered to have fallen from the sky. They were often thought to be thunderbolts and are called "thunderstones"
- Gjöll, the name of the rock which Fenrir the wolf is bound. (Norse mythology)

- **Batrachite**, gemstones that was supposedly found in frogs, to which ancient physicians and naturalists attributed the virtue of resisting poison.
- Vaidurya, most precious of all stones, sparkling beauty beyond compare, the stone worn by the goddess Lakshmi and the goddess of wealth Rigveda. (Hindu Mythology)

1.9 Plants and Herbs

- Aglaophotis, an herb. According to Dioscorides, peony is used for warding off demons, witchcraft, and fever.
- **Fern flower**, a magic flower that blooms for a very short time on the eve of the Summer solstice. The flower brings fortune to the person who finds it. (Slavic mythology)
- **Hungry grass** (also *Féar Gortach*), a patch of cursed grass. Anyone walking on it was doomed to perpetual and insatiable hunger. (Irish mythology)
- Lotus tree, a plant that occurs in stories from Greek mythology and later in the Book of Job.
- Moly, a magical herb Hermes gave to Odysseus to protect him from Circe's magic when he went to her home to rescue his friends.
- Raskovnik, a magical herb in Slavic mythology. According to lore, the raskovnik has the magical property to unlock or uncover anything that is locked or closed.
- Ausadhirdipyamanas, healing plants. Used for healing and rejuvenations in battles. These are used by Ashvins. (Hindu mythology)
- **Haoma**, is the Avestan language name of a plant and its divinity, both of which play a role in Zoroastrian doctrine and in later Persian culture and mythology.

1.10 Foods

- Ambrosia, the food or drink of the gods often depicted as conferring longevity or immortality upon whoever consumed it. (Greek mythology)
- **Apple of Discord**, the goddess Eris inscribed "to the fairest" and tossed in the midst of the festivities at the wedding of Peleus and Thetis. (Greek mythology)
- **Cornucopia** (also *Horn of Plenty*), was the horn of the goat-nymph Amalthea from which poured an unceasing abundance of nectar, ambrosia and fruit. (Greek mythology)
- Golden apple, an element that appears in various national and ethnic folk legends or fairy tales.
- **Peaches of Immortality**, consumed by the immortals due to their mystic virtue of conferring longevity on all who eat them. (Chinese mythology)
- **Mead of poetry** (also *Mead of Suttungr*), is a mythical beverage that whoever "drinks becomes a skald or scholar to recite any information and solve any question. (Norse mythology)
- Amrita, the drink of the gods which grants them immortality. (Hindu mythology)
- Soma, it is described as being prepared by extracting juice from the stalks of a certain plant. In both Vedic and Zoroastrian tradition, the name of the drink and the plant are the same, and also personified as a divinity, the three forming a religious or mythological unity. (Hindu mythology)

1.11. SUBSTANCES

1.11 Substances

 Adamant and similar words are used to refer to any especially hard substance, whether composed of diamond, some other gemstone, or some type of metal.

- Alicorn is the detached horn of unicorn, thought to be capable of healing any disease.
- Alkahest, a hypothetical universal solvent, having the power to dissolve every other substance, including gold. It was much sought after by alchemists for what they thought would be its invaluable medicinal qualities.
- Azoth, it was considered to be a universal medicine or universal solvent sought in alchemy.
- **Eitr**, this liquid substance is the origin of all living things: the first giant Ymir was conceived from eitr. The substance is supposed to be very poisonous and is also produced by Jörmungandr and other serpents. (Norse mythology)
- Elixir of life, a mythical potion that, when drunk from a certain cup at a certain time, supposedly grants the drinker eternal life and/or eternal youth.
- Ichor, is the ethereal golden fluid that is the blood of the gods and/or immortals. (Greek mythology)
- Manna (also Mana), is an edible substance that, according to the Bible and the Quran. God provided for the Israelites during their travels in the desert.
- Orichalcum, a metal mentioned in several ancient writings, including a story of Atlantis in the Critias dialogue, recorded by Plato. According to Critias, orichalcum was considered second only to gold in value, and was found and mined in many parts of Atlantis in ancient times.
- Panacea, was supposed to be a remedy that would cure all diseases and prolong life indefinitely.
- **Prima materia** (also *Materia Prima* or *First Matter*), is the ubiquitous starting material required for the alchemical magnum opus and the creation of the philosopher's stone. It is the primitive formless base of all matter similar to chaos, the quintessence, or aether.
- Yliaster, is the formless base of all matter which is the raw material for the alchemical Great Work.
- **Hydra's poisonous blood**, Heracles would use arrows dipped in the Hydra's poisonous blood to kill other foes during his Labours, such as Stymphalian birds and the giant Geryon. (Greek mythology)

1.12 Miscellaneous

- Bone of Ullr, the god Ullr had a bone upon which spells were carved. (Norse mythology)
- Clue of Ariadne, the magical ball of string given to Theseus by Ariadne to help him navigate the Labyrinth. (Greek Mythology)
- Cup of Jamshid, a cup of divination in the Persian mythology. It was long possessed by rulers of ancient Persia and was said to be filled with an elixir of immortality. The whole world was said to be reflected in it.
- Eldhrímnir, the cauldron in which Andhrímnir cooks Sæhrímnir. (Norse mythology)
- **Gleipnir**, the magic chain that bound the wolf Fenrir. It was light and thin as silk but strong as creation itself and made from six wonderful ingredients. (Norse mythology)
- **Hand of Glory**, a disembodied pickled hand of a man who was hung alive. Said to have the power to unlock any door and, if a candle was placed within made from some body part of the same person, would freeze in place anyone who it was given to. (European folklore)
- Hlidskjalf, Odin's all-seeing throne in his palace Valaskjálf.

- **Horn of Gabriel**, the name refers to the tradition identifying the Archangel Gabriel with the angel who blows the horn to announce Judgement Day, associating the infinite with the divine.
- Lantern of Diogenes, according to popular legend, carried in broad daylight by the Cynic philosopher Diogenes of Sinope to aid in his fruitless search for an honest man.
- Māui's Fishhook, used to catch the fish that would become New Zealand's North Island; the hook was also used to create the Hawaiian Islands. (Polynesian mythology)
- Olivant, the horn of Roland, paladin of Charlemagne in the Song of Roland. It was won from the giant Jutmundus and is made of ivory. When blown, it is so loud that it kills birds flying in the sky and causes whole armies to rout.
- **Palladium**, a wooden statue that fell from the sky. As long as it stayed in Troy, the city-state could not lose a war. (Greek mythology)
- Reginnaglar, (Old Norse *god nails*) are nails used for religious purposes.
- **Sampo**, a magical artifact of indeterminate type constructed by Ilmarinen that brought good fortune to its holder. (Finnish mythology)
- Smoking Mirror, the mirror that the god Tezcatlipoca uses to see the whole cosmos.
- Winnowing Oar, an object that appears in Books XI and XXIII of Homer's Odyssey. (Greek mythology)
- Pair Dadeni, a magical cauldron able to revive the dead. (Welsh mythology)
- Nanteos Cup, a medieval wood mazer bowl, since the late 19th century it has been attributed with a supernatural ability to heal those who drink from it.
- Óðrerir, refers either to one of the vessels that contain the mead of poetry (along with Boðn and Són) or to the mead itself. (Norse mythology)
- **Ankh**, appears frequently in Egyptian tomb paintings and other art, often at the fingertips of a god or goddess. (Egyptian mythology)
- Rati, the name of a drill or auger that was used by Odin during his quest to obtain the mead of poetry. (Norse mythology)
- **Gjallarhorn**, a mystical horn blown at the onset of Ragnarök associated with the god Heimdallr and the wise being Mímir. (Norse mythology)
- **Benben**, the mound that arose from the primordial waters, Nu, and on which the creator god Atum settled. (Egyptian mythology)
- Loeðing and Drómi, the first and second fetter that was used to bound Fenrir which broke. (Norse mythology)
- **Svefnthorn** (*Sleep Thorn*), it was used to put an adversary into a deep sleep from which he or she would not awaken for a long time. (Norse mythology)
- Golden Fleece, sought by Jason and the Argonauts. (Greek mythology)
- Excalibur's scabbard, was said to have powers of its own. Injuries from losses of blood, for example, would not kill the bearer. In some telling, wounds received by one wearing the scabbard did not bleed at all. (Arthurian legend)
- Bragi's harp, a magical golden harp given to Bragi by the dwarfs when he was born. (Norse mythology)
- Kantele, Kalevala, the mage Väinämöinen makes the first kantele from the jawbone of a giant pike and a few hairs from Hiisi's stallion. The music it makes draws all the forest creatures near to wonder at its beauty. (Finnish mythology)

1.13. REFERENCES 17

• Pot of Gold, Leprechaun store away all their coins in a hidden pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. (Irish mythology)

- **Triton's conch shell**, a twisted conch shell on which Triton blew like a trumpet to calm or raise the waves. (Greek mythology)
- Fountain of Youth, is a spring that supposedly restores the youth of anyone who drinks or bathes in its waters.
- Magic Lamp, an oil lamp that can be rubbed in order to summon a genie who grants wishes. (Arabic mythology)
- **Bag of Wind**, Aeolus gave Odysseus a tightly closed leather bag full of the captured winds so he could sail easily home to Ithaca on the gentle West Wind. (Greek mythology)
- Odin's Globe, an artifact described with different magical attributes. the common details include is silver color and immense power. Odin had the globe forged by dwarven brothers to help create safe-passage between Asgard and other realms after the Son's of Iylid damaged the rainbow bridge. (Norse mythology)
- Rota Fortunae (Wheel of Fortune), a concept in medieval and ancient philosophy referring to the capricious nature of Fate. The wheel belongs to the goddess Fortuna, who spins it at random, changing the positions of those on the wheel some suffer great misfortune, others gain windfalls. (Greek mythology/Roman mythology)
- Round Table, King Arthur's famed table, around which he and his Knights congregate. As its name suggests, it has no head, implying that everyone who sits there has equal status. (Arthurian legend)
- Siege Perilous (*The Perilous Seat*), is a vacant seat at the Round Table reserved by Merlin for the knight who would one day be successful in the quest for the Holy Grail. (Arthurian legend)
- **Firebird's plumage**, the feathers of a Firebird that glows brightly emitting red, orange, and yellow light, like a bonfire that is just past the turbulent flame. The feathers do not cease glowing if removed, and one feather can light a large room if not concealed. (Slavic mythology)

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- [5] Cantar de mio Cid. Edition of Alberto Montaner. Ed. Galaxia Gutenberg, 2007.
- [6] Don Juan Manuel. El Conde Lucanor. Barcelona: Losada, 1997.
- [7] Florus. Epitomae, 1.33.
- [8] D'après l'épigraphie cambodgienne du X° siècle, les rois des "Kambuja" prétendaient descendre d'un ancêtre mythique éponyme, le sage ermite Kambu, et de la nymphe céleste Mera, dont le nom a pu être forgé d'après l'appellation ethnique "khmèr" (George Coedes). ; See also: Indianised States of Southeast Asia, 1968, p 66, George Coedes.
- [9] Sri Dharmaraja
- [10] Smith, Bardwell L. "Hinduism: New Essays in the History of Religions".
- [11] Épica medieval española (Cantar de los Siete Infantes de Lara). Madrid, Cátedra, 1991

Chapter 2

Cap of invisibility

In classical mythology, the **Cap of Invisibility** (Ἄϊδος κυνέην (*H*)aidos kuneēn in Greek, lit. dog-skin of Hades) is a helmet or cap that can turn the wearer invisible.*[1] It is also known as the **Cap of Hades**, **Helm of Hades**,*[2] or **Helm of Darkness**. Wearers of the cap in Greek myths include Athena, the goddess of wisdom, the messenger god Hermes, and the hero Perseus. The Cap of Invisibility enables the user to become invisible to other supernatural entities, functioning much like the cloud of mist that the gods surround themselves in to become undetectable.*[3]

2.1 Origins

The only ancient source that attributes a special helmet to the ruler of the underworld is the *Bibliotheca* (2nd/1st century BC), in which the Uranian Cyclopes give Zeus the thunderbolt, Poseidon the trident, and a helmet (*kyneê*) to Pluto (in the Greek text Πλούτων, *Plouton*) for their war against the Titans (Titanomachy). [4] Pluto's helmet, however, is not specifically said to be the Helmet of Invisibility (*aidos kyneê*). The magical quality of invisibility (*aidos*) sounds like the name *Hades*, a name for the ruler of the underworld but by the time of the *Bibliotheca* used mainly for the underworld as a place. The similarity between *aidos* and *Hades* appears to be the reason that in the post-classical tradition the *aidos kyneê* was thought to be a possession of the ruler of the underworld, but in fact no ancient sources ever say that he wears or uses it. Myths about the use of the Helmet of Invisibility (see below) sometimes explain how the user obtained it, but the giver or source is never Pluto (or the god Hades). [5] Translators often render *aidos kyneê* as "Helmet of Hades", but "Hades" is ambiguous in this phrase; it may refer to the place and its characteristic "hiddenness" which the helmet has the power to bestow upon the wearer, with no indication that the helmet was thought of as the personal property of the god who rules the underworld. It "belongs" to him primarily in the sense that its magical properties draw on powers within his realm. [6] In Greek art, the wearing of a helmet is not an attribute of the ruler of the underworld.

In the classical mythology of the Renaissance, however, the helmet is regularly said to belong to the god of the underworld. Rabelais calls it the Helmet of Pluto,*[8] and Erasmus the Helmet of Orcus.*[9] The helmet becomes proverbial for those who conceal their true nature by a cunning device: "the helmet of Pluto, which maketh the politic man go invisible, is secrecy in the counsel, and celerity in the execution." *[10]

2.2 Users

2.2.1 Athena

Athena, the goddess of wisdom, battle, and handicrafts, wore the Cap of Invisibility in one instance during the Trojan War.*[11] She used it to become invisible to Ares when she aided Diomedes, his enemy. Her assistance even enabled Diomedes to injure the god of war with a spear.

2.2.2 Hermes

The messenger god Hermes wore the Cap during his battle with Hippolytus, the giant.

2.2.3 Perseus

In some stories, Perseus received the Cap of Invisibility (along with the Winged Sandals) from Athena when he went to slay the Gorgon Medusa, which helped him escape her sisters.*[12] In other myths, however, Perseus obtained these items from the Stygian nymphs.*[13] The Cap of Invisibility was not used to avoid the Gorgons' petrifying gazes, but rather to escape from the immortal Sthenno and Euryale later on after he had decapitated Medusa.*[14]

2.3 In popular culture

In the *Dragon Quest* role-playing video game series, there is a piece of equipment named "Hades' helm." It is cursed, and is therefore useless, in every game but Dragon Quest IX, in which it can be alchemised into a Great helm.

In the *Percy Jackson & the Olympians* series by Rick Riordan, Annabeth Chase (a Daughter of Athena) received a New York Yankees baseball cap from her mother that was a disguised cap of invisibility. In the same series, the main antagonist, Luke Castellan, stole Hades' Helm of Darkness, as well as Zeus' master bolt.

The helmet also appears in the Italian mythological comedy *Arrivano i titani*, but its invisibility powers work in this version only at night.

The helm plays a major role in Dan Simmons' novel *Ilium* in which the scholic narrator Thomas Hockenberry acquires the artifact through Aphrodite in her scheme to have the scholic spy on and eventually assassinate the goddess Athena.

2.4 See also

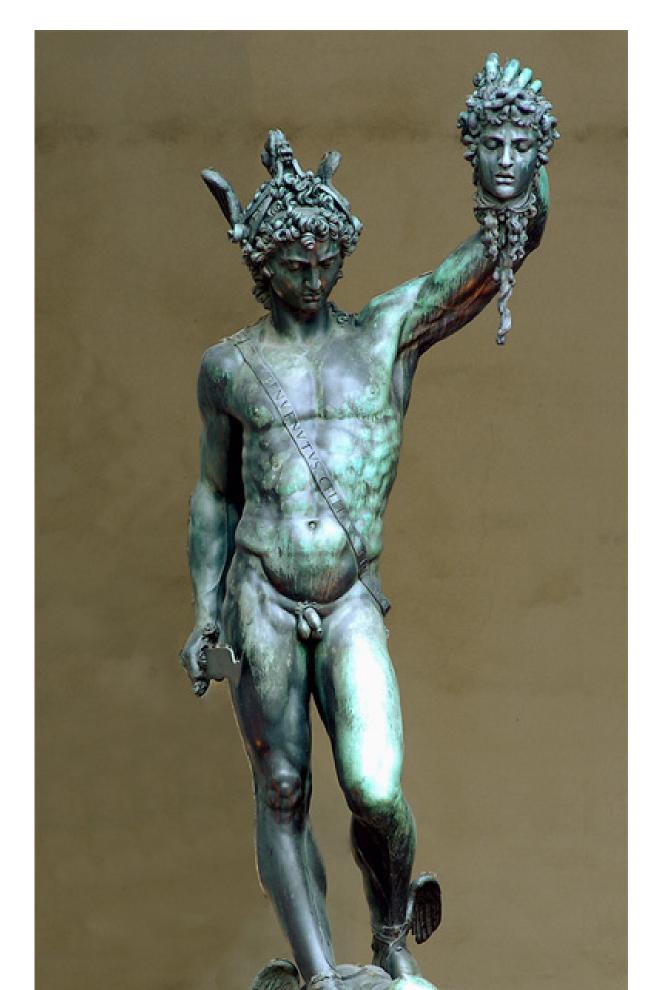
- Cloak of invisibility
- · Cloaking device
- Tarnhelm
- Mambrino a fictional Moorish king who possessed a golden helmet that would make the wearer invulnerable
- Bident another mystical object associated with Hades

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- [6] Jenny Strauss Clay, *The Wrath of Athena: Gods and Men in the Odyssey* (Rowman & Littlefield, 1997), p. 15, note 12; Olga Freidenberg, *Image and Concept: Mythopoetic Roots of Literature* (Harwood, 1997), p. 66, and especially Robin Hand, *Apollodorus: The Library of Greek Mythology* (Oxford University Press, 1997), note to the *Bibliotheca* passage, p. 201: "The leather helmet or cap belongs to Hades because his name suggests invisibility (*a-ides*). The notion that he was 'armed' with it by the Cyclopes ···is a fancy from a relatively late period."
- [7] For the iconography of Hades the god, Pluto, and other forms of the god, see Pluto (mythology)#Iconography and attributes.
- [8] Gargantua and Pantagruel Book 5, Chapter 8.
- [9] Erasmus, Adagia 2.10.74 (Orci galea).
- [10] Francis Bacon Essays Civil and Moral 21, "Of Delays".
- [11] "...but Athene put on the cap of Hades, to the end that mighty Ares should not see her." Homer. *Iliad* 5.844-845. Translation By A. T. Murray.
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2.5. REFERENCES 21



Tarnhelm

Tarnhelm is the name of a magic helmet in Richard Wagner's *Der Ring des Nibelungen* (1848-1874). It was crafted by Mime at the demand of his brother Alberich. It is used as a cloak of invisibility by Alberich in *Das Rheingold* (1869). It also allows one to change one's form:

- Alberich changes to a dragon and then a toad in Das Rheingold, Scene 3
- Fafner changes to a dragon at the end of *Das Rheingold* and appears thus in Siegfried Act II. (It is never made clear whether Fafner actually used the Tarnhelm to transform, or simply transformed as many giants and gods did in the myths. There is also no Tarnhelm present in the original Andvari myth from Reginsmál in the Poetic Edda from which Wagner drew inspiration for this scene.)
- Siegfried changes to Gunther's form in *Götterdämmerung* Act I, Scene 3.

Finally, it allows one to travel long distances instantly, as Siegfried does in Götterdämmerung Act II, Scene 2.

3.1 In popular culture

- It is also an item found in the game *Diablo* 2.
- In Thor (Marvel Comics) an adaption was done of the Ring Cycle, in which the Tarnhelm appeared.
- The 1957 Warner Bros. cartoon *What's Opera*, *Doc?*, a comedy on opera in general and Wagner's Ring Cycle in particular, has Elmer Fudd wearing a magic helmet that is meant to suggest Tarnhelm.
- It is the name of the expansion pack for PC strategy game Naval War: Arctic Circle which features new stealth units, which are supposedly invisible to RADAR.
- The main character in Brenda Clough's novel *How Like a God* can psionically obstruct other people from seeing him, a process he refers to as "tarnhelm".
- The Dungeons & Dragons game includes the magic item *helm of teleportation* (Gygax & Arneson, 1974 D&D Vol-2, p. 37), similar to Siegfried's use of the Tarnhelm in Act II, Scene 2.

3.2 See also

- Huliðshjálmr (concealing helmet) of Norse dwarves
- Fafnir's helmet Aegis

3.2. SEE ALSO 23



Crown of Immortality



The Crown of Immortality, held by the allegorical figure Eterna (Eternity) on the Swedish House of Knights fresco by David Klöcker Ehrenstrahl

The **Crown of Immortality** is a literary and religious metaphor traditionally represented in art first as a laurel wreath and later as a symbolic circle of stars (often a crown, tiara, halo or aureola). The Crown appears in a number of Baroque iconographic and allegoric works of art to indicate the wearer's immortality.

4.1. WREATH CROWNS 25

4.1 Wreath crowns

In ancient Egypt, the crown of justification was a wreath placed on the deceased to represent victory over death in the afterlife, in emulation of the resurrecting god Osiris. It was made of various materials including laurel, palm, feathers, papyrus, roses, or precious metals, with numerous examples represented on the Fayum mummy portraits of the Roman Imperial period.*[1]

In ancient Greece, a wreath of laurel or olive was awarded to victorious athletes and later poets. Among the Romans, generals celebrating a formal triumph wore a laurel wreath, an honor that during the Empire was restricted to the Imperial family. The placing of the wreath was often called a "crowning", and its relation to immortality was problematic; it was supposed to secure the wearer immortality in the form of enduring fame, but the *triumphator* was also reminded of his place within the mortal world: in the traditional tableaux, an accompanying slave whispered continually in the general's ear *Memento mori*, "Remember you are mortal". *[2] Funerary wreaths of gold leaf were associated particularly with initiates into the mystery religions. *[3]

From the Early Christian era the phrase "crown of immortality" was widely used by the Church Fathers in writing about martyrs; the immortality was now both of reputation on earth, and of eternal life in heaven. The usual visual attribute of a martyr in art, was a palm frond, not a wreath. The phrase may have originated in scriptural references, or from incidents such as this reported by Eusebius (Bk V of History) describing the persecution in Lyon in 177, in which he refers to literal crowns, and also brings in an athletic metaphor of the "victor's crown" at the end:

"From that time on, their martyrdoms embraced death in all its forms. From flowers of every shape and color they wove a crown to offer to the Father; and so it was fitting that the valiant champions should endure an ever-changing conflict, and having triumphed gloriously should win the mighty crown of immortality. Maturus, Sanctus, Blandina, and Attalus were taken into the amphitheater to face the wild beasts, and to furnish open proof of the inhumanity of the heathen, the day of fighting wild beasts being purposely arranged for our people. There, before the eyes of all, Maturus and Sanctus were again taken through the whole series of punishments, as if they had suffered nothing at all before, or rather as if they had already defeated their opponent in bout after bout and were now battling for the victor's crown." *[4]

The first use seems to be that attributed to the martyr Ignatius of Antioch in 107.

4.1.1 Advent wreath

An Advent wreath is a ring of candles, usually made with evergreen cuttings and used for household devotion by some Christians during the season of Advent. The wreath is meant to represent God's eternity. On Saint Lucy's Day, December 13, it is common to wear crowns of candles in Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Italy, Bosnia, Iceland, and Croatia.

Before the reform of the Gregorian calendar in the 16th century, St. Lucy's Day fell on the winter solstice. The representation of Saint Lucy seems to derive from the Roman goddess Lucina, who is connected to the solstice. *[5]*[6]

4.2 Crown of martyrdom

Martyrs often are idealized as combatants, with the spectacle of the arena transposed to the martyr's struggle with Satan. Ignatius of Antioch, condemned to fight beasts in the year 107, "asked his friends not to try to save him and so rob him of the crown of immortality." *[7] In 155, Polycarp, Christian bishop of Smyrna, was stabbed after a failed attempt to burn him at the stake. He is said to have been " ··· crowned with the wreath of immortality ... having through patience overcome the unjust governor, and thus acquired the crown of immortality." *[8] Eusebius uses similar imagery to speak of Blandina, martyred in the arena at Lyon in 177:

4.3 Crown of stars

For the iconographical motif represented above the head, see circle of stars.

The crown of stars, representing immortality, may derive from the story of Ariadne, especially as told by Ovid, in which the unhappy Ariadne is turned into a constellation of stars, the Corona Borealis (Crown of the North), modelled on a jewelled crown she wore, and thus becoming immortal. In Titian's *Bacchus and Ariadne* (1520–23, National Gallery, London), the constellation is shown above Ariadne's head as a circle of eight stars (though Ovid specifies nine), very similar to what would become the standard depiction of the motif. Although the crown was probably depicted in classical art, and is described in several literary sources, no classical visual depictions have survived.*[11] The Titian therefore appears to be the earliest such representation to survive, and it was also at this period that illustrations in prints of the Apocalypse by artists such as Dürer*[12] *[13] and Jean Duvet were receiving very wide circulation.

In *Ariadne, Venus and Bacchus*, by Tintoretto (1576, Doge's Palace, Venice), a flying Venus crowns Ariadne with a circle of stars, and many similar compositions exist, such as the ceiling of the Egyptian Hall at Boughton House of 1695.

4.4 Allegorical development

The first use of the crown of stars as an allegorical Crown of Immortality may be the ceiling fresco, Allegory of Divine Providence and Barberini Power (1633–39), in the Palazzo Barberini in Rome by Pietro da Cortona. Here a figure identified as Immortality is flying, with her crown of stars held out in front of her, near the centre of the large ceiling. According to the earliest descriptions she is about to crown the Barberini emblems, representing Pope Urban VIII, who was also a poet.*[14]*[15]*[16] Immortality seems to have been a preoccupation of Urban; his funeral monument by Bernini in St Peter's Basilica in Rome has Death as a life-size skeleton writing his name on a scroll.

Two further examples of the Crown of Immortality can be found in Sweden, firstly in the great hall ceiling fresco of the Swedish House of Knights by David Klöcker Ehrenstrahl (between 1670–1675) which pictures among many allegoric figures Eterna (eternity) who holds in her hands the Crown of Immortality.*[17] The second is in Drottningholm Palace, the home of the Swedish Royal Family, in a ceiling fresco named *The Great Deeds of The Swedish Kings*, painted in 1695 by David Klöcker Ehrenstrahl.*[18] This has the same *motif* as the fresco in the House of Knights mentioned above. The Drottningholm fresco, was shown in the 1000th stamp*[19] by Czesław Słania, the Polish postage stamp and banknote engraver.

The crown was also painted by the French Neoclassical painter Louis-Jean-François Lagrenée, 1725–1805, in his *Allegory on the Death of the Dauphin*, where the crown was held by a young son who had pre-deceased the father (alternative titles specifically mention the crown of Immortality).*[20]

4.5 Poems, texts and writing

- Edward Grim wrote about Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury who was murdered on December 29, 1170 as the person ...promised by God to be the next to receive the crown of immortality....*[21]
- The preface to Percy Bysshe Shelley's poem *The Revolt of Islam* contain: *Should the public judge that my composition is worthless, I shall indeed bow before the tribunal from which Milton received his crown of immortality....**[22]
- A Latter Day Saints scripture, Doctrine and Covenants 81:6, contain: And if thou art faithful unto the end thou shalt have a crown of immortality, and eternal life in the mansions which I have prepared in the house of my Father..* [23]

4.6 See also

• Five Crowns

4.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 27

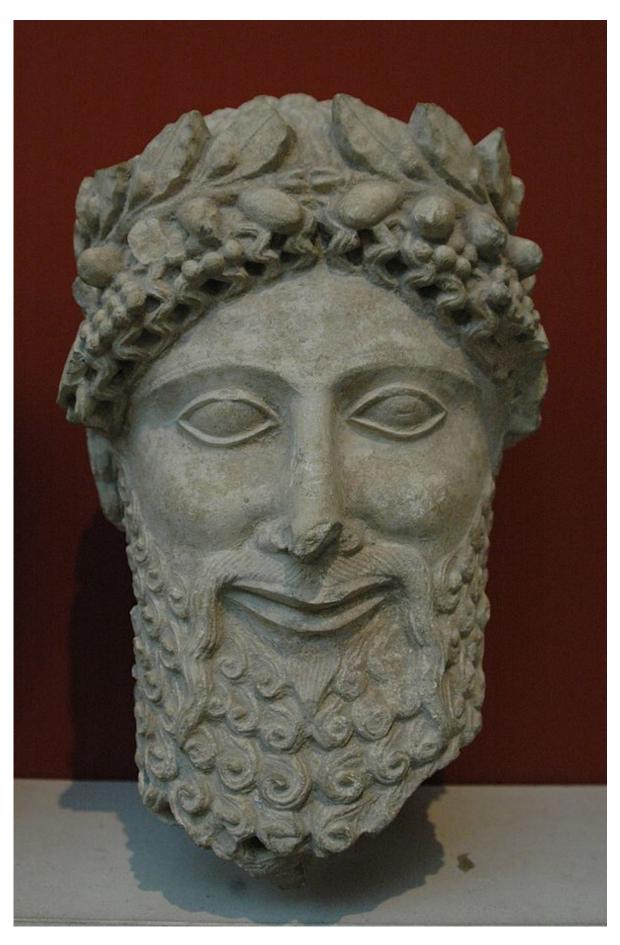
- · Circle of stars
- Iconography
- Allegory

4.7 External links

- Symbolism concerning Immortality
- Crown of Thorn / Weapon of Christ

4.8 References

- [1] Lorelei H. Corcoran and Marie Svoboda, Herakleides: A Portrait Mummy from Roman Egypt (Getty Publications, 2010), p. 32.
- [2] For a full discussion, see Mary Beard, The Roman Triumph (Harvard University Press, 2007), passim, limited preview online.
- [3] Mark J. Johnson, "Pagan-Christian Burial Practices of the Fourth Century: Shared Tombs?" *Journal of Early Christian Studies* 5 (1997), p. 45, citing Minucius Felix, *Octavius* 28.3–4.
- [4] http://www.swcp.com/~{}vogs/eusebius.html. The metaphor of the "athlete of Christ" gaining the "Crown of Immortality" is developed further by St John Cassian in *On Gluttony*" *Ch 18 & 19*
- [5] "13th of December and related gods and goddesses".
- [6] "About Lucina".
- [7] "About Martyrdom containing his words".
- [8] "The words in Chapter 17, 19 of The Martyrdom of Polycarp".
- [9] "The martyrdom of Blandina".
- [10] "About symbolism".
- [11] http://traumwerk.stanford.edu/philolog/2006/10/titians_bacchus_and_ariadne_15.html Paper by Patrick Hunt, Stanford U.
- [12] "Albrecht Dürer's Madonna on the Crecent".
- [13] "Apocalype artworks beginning with Albrecht Dürer's Madonna Appears to St John (German)".
- [14] "The Palazzo Barberini fresco".
- [15] "Palazzo Barberini fresco (simplified)".
- [16] Vitzthum, Walter (October 1961). "A Comment on the Iconography of Pietro da Cortona's Barberini Ceiling." . Burlington Magazine 103 (703): 426. ISSN 0007-6287. JSTOR 873383.
- [17] "Swedish article published by Swedish House of Knights naming the Crown." (PDF).
- [18] "Fresco at Drottningholm castle".
- [19] "Stamp showing a crown of immortality" (JPG).
- [20] http://www.univ-montp3.fr/~{}pictura/GenerateurNotice.php?numnotice=A1632&PHPSESSID=94ee9dbdb5e603b4592e6280530673e0 image and Diderot's description
- [21] "His text included".
- [22] "Percy Bysshe Shelley's poem *The Revolt of Islam*".
- [23] "Doctrine and Covenants 81:6".



Wreathed worshipper of Apollo, from Cyprus, 475-450 BC

4.8. REFERENCES 29



Gold wreath from ancient Macedonia



Candle-crowned Danish girls in a Lucia procession, 2001

4.8. REFERENCES 31



Jesus with Crown of Thorns by El Greco, 1580

Aegis

This article is about the shield used by the god Zeus in Greek Mythology. For other uses, see Aegis (disambiguation). The **aegis** or **aigis** (Ancient Greek: Ai γ ic; English pronunciation: /'i:d γ is/[1]), as stated in the *Iliad*, is carried by Athena and Zeus, but its nature is uncertain. It had been interpreted as an animal skin or a shield, sometimes bearing the head of a Gorgon. There may be a connection with a deity named Aex *or Aix*, a daughter of Helios and a nurse of Zeus or alternatively a mistress of Zeus (Pseudo-Hyginus, Astronomica 2. 13). The aegis of Athena is referred to in several places in the Iliad. It produced a sound as from a myriad roaring dragons (Iliad, 4.17) and was borne by Athena in battle "... and among them went bright-eyed Athene, holding the precious aegis which is ageless and immortal: a hundred tassels of pure gold hang fluttering from it, tight-woven each of them, and each the worth of a hundred oxen." *[2]

The modern concept of doing something "under someone's *aegis*" means doing something under the protection of a powerful, knowledgeable, or benevolent source. The word *aegis* is identified with protection by a strong force with its roots in Greek mythology and adopted by the Romans; there are parallels in Norse mythology and in Egyptian mythology as well, where the Greek word *aegis* is applied by extension.

5.1 In Greek mythology

Virgil imagines the Cyclopes in Hephaestus' forge, who "busily burnished the aegis Athena wears in her angry moods—a fearsome thing with a surface of gold like scaly snake-skin, and he linked serpents and the Gorgon herself upon the goddess's breast—a severed head rolling its eyes",*[3] furnished with golden tassels and bearing the *Gorgoneion* (Medusa's head) in the central boss. Some of the Attic vase-painters retained an archaic tradition that the tassels had originally been serpents in their representations of the aegis. When the Olympian deities overtook the older deities of Greece and she was born of Metis (inside Zeus who had swallowed the goddess) and "re-born" through the head of Zeus fully clothed, Athena already wore her typical garments.

When the Olympian shakes the aegis, Mount Ida is wrapped in clouds, the thunder rolls and men are struck down with fear. "Aegis-bearing Zeus", as he is in the *Iliad*, sometimes *lends* the fearsome aegis to Athena. In the *Iliad* when Zeus sends Apollo to revive the wounded Hector of Troy, Apollo, holding the aegis, charges the Achaeans, pushing them back to their ships drawn up on the shore. According to Edith Hamilton's *Mythology: Timeless Tales of Gods and Heroes*, *[4] the Aegis is the breastplate of Zeus, and was "awful to behold". However, Zeus is normally portrayed in classical sculpture holding a thunderbolt or lightning, bearing neither a shield nor a breastplate.

5.2 The aegis in classical poetry and art

Greeks of the Classical age interpreted the Homeric aegis usually as a cover of some kind born by Athena. It was supposed by Euripides (*Ion*, 995) that the aegis born by Athena was the skin of the slain Gorgon,*[5] yet the usual understanding*[6] is that the *Gorgoneion* was *added* to the aegis, a votive gift from a grateful Perseus.

5.3. ORIGINS 33

In a similar interpretation, Aex, a daughter of Helios, represented as a great fire-breathing chthonic serpent similar to the Chimera, was slain and flayed by Athena, who afterwards wore its skin, the aegis, as a cuirass (Diodorus Siculus iii. 70), or as a chlamys. The Douris cup shows that the aegis was represented exactly as the skin of the great serpent, with its scales clearly delineated.

John Tzetzes says*[7] that aegis was the skin of the monstrous giant Pallas whom Athena overcame and whose name she attached to her own (name).

In a late rendering by Hyginus (*Poetical Astronomy* ii. 13), Zeus is said to have used the skin of a pet goat owned by his nurse Amalthea (*aigis* "goat-skin") which suckled him in Crete, as a shield when he went forth to do battle against the Titans.

The aegis appears in works of art sometimes as an animal's skin thrown over Athena's shoulders and arms, occasionally with a border of snakes, usually also bearing the Gorgon head, the *gorgoneion*. In some pottery it appears as a tasselled cover over Athena's dress. It is sometimes represented on the statues of Roman emperors, heroes, and warriors, and on cameos and vases. A vestige of that appears in a portrait of Alexander the Great in a fresco from Pompeii dated to the first century BC, which shows the image of the head of a woman on his armor that resembles the Gorgon.

5.3 Origins

Herodotus (*Histories* iv.189) thought he had identified the source of the ægis in Libya, which was always a distant territory of ancient magic for the Greeks:

Athene's garments and ægis were borrowed by the Greeks from the Libyan women, who are dressed in exactly the same way, except that their leather garments are fringed with thongs, not serpents.

Robert Graves in *The Greek Myths* (1955; 1960) asserts that the ægis in its Libyan sense had been a shamanic pouch containing various ritual objects, bearing the device of a monstrous serpent-haired visage with tusk-like teeth and a protruding tongue which was meant to frighten away the uninitiated. In this context, Graves identifies the aegis as clearly belonging first to Athena.

One current interpretation is that the Hittite sacral hieratic hunting bag (*kursas*), a rough and shaggy goatskin that has been firmly established in literary texts and iconography by H.G. Güterbock,*[9] was a source of the aegis.*[10]

5.3.1 Etymology

The Greek Aἰγίς, has many meanings including:*[11]

- 1. "violent windstorm" , from the verb ἀΐσσω * [12] (stem ἀϊγ-) = "I rush or move violently" . Akin to καταιγίς, "thunderstorm" .
- 2. The shield of a deity as described above.
- 3. "goatskin coat", from treating the word as meaning "something grammatically feminine pertaining to goat" (Greek $\alpha i \xi$ (stem $\alpha i \gamma$ -) = "goat", + suffix $-i \zeta$ (stem $-i \delta$ -)).

The original meaning may have been #1, and $Z\epsilon \dot{\nu}\varsigma$ $Ai\gamma i o\chi o\varsigma =$ "Zeus who holds the aegis" may have originally meant "Sky/Heaven, who holds the thunderstorm". The transition to the meaning "shield" or "goat-skin" may have come by folk-etymology among a people familiar with draping an animal skin over the left arm as a shield.

5.4 In Egyptian and Nubian tradition

The aegis also appears in Ancient Egyptian mythology. The goddess Bast sometimes was depicted holding a ceremonial sistrum in one hand and an aegis in the other – the aegis usually resembling a collar or gorget embellished with a lioness

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head. Plato drew a parallel between Athene and the ancient Libyan and Egyptian goddess Neith, a war deity who also was depicted carrying a shield.*[13]

Ancient Nubia shared many aspects of its mythology with ancient Egypt and there is debate about the original source of some religious concepts that the two cultures share and, whether the assimilation was from Nubia to Egypt, the reverse, or through continuing exchanges. At one time the Kush of Nubia ruled ancient Egypt.

An image of Isis wearing an aegis was discovered in present-day Sudan, the territory of Nubia when the artifact was made in the 4th century BC. It is likely to be an artifact of the flourishing culture of Meroë, successors to the culture of Kush, as indicated by the use of Egyptian hieroglyphs and cartouches.

5.5 In Norse mythology

In Norse mythology, the dragon Fafnir (best known in the form of a dragon slain by Sigurðr) bears on his forehead the Ægis-helm (ON ægishjálmr), or Ægir's helmet, or more specifically the "Helm of Terror". However, some versions would say that Alberich was the one holding a helm, named as the *Tarnkappe*, which has the power to make the user invisible. It may be an actual helmet or a magical sign with a rather poetic name. Ægir is an Old Norse word meaning "terror" and the name of a destructive giant associated with the sea; ægis is the genitive (possessive) form of ægir and has no direct relation to Greek aigis.

5.6 References

- [1] "Definition of aegis in Oxford dictionary" . Oxford University Press. Retrieved 23 June 2014.
- [2] *Iliad* 2.446–9, (Martin Hammond's translation).
- [3] Aeneid 8.435–8, (Day-Lewie's translation).
- [4] Part I, section I (Warner Books' United States Paperback Edition)
- [5] Noted by Graves 1960, 9.a; Karl Kerenyi, The Gods of the Greeks 1951, p 50.
- [6] As in Kerenyi 1951:50
- [7] John Tzetzes, On Lycophron, 355.
- [8] Williams, Dyfri. Masterpieces of Classical Art, p. 296, 2009, British Museum Press, ISBN 9780714122540
- [9] Güterbock, Perspectives on Hittite Civilization: Selected Writings (Chicago 1997).
- [10] Calvert Watkins "A Distant Anatolian Echo in Pindar: The Origin of the Aegis Again", *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology* **100** (2000), pp. 1-14. on JSTOR
- [11] αἰγίς. Liddell, Henry George; Scott, Robert; A Greek–English Lexicon at the Perseus Project.
- [12] "to quickly move, to shoot, dart, to put in motion": ἀΐσσω. Liddell, Henry George; Scott, Robert; *An Intermediate Greek-English Lexicon* at the Perseus Project.
- [13] Plato: Timaeus 5

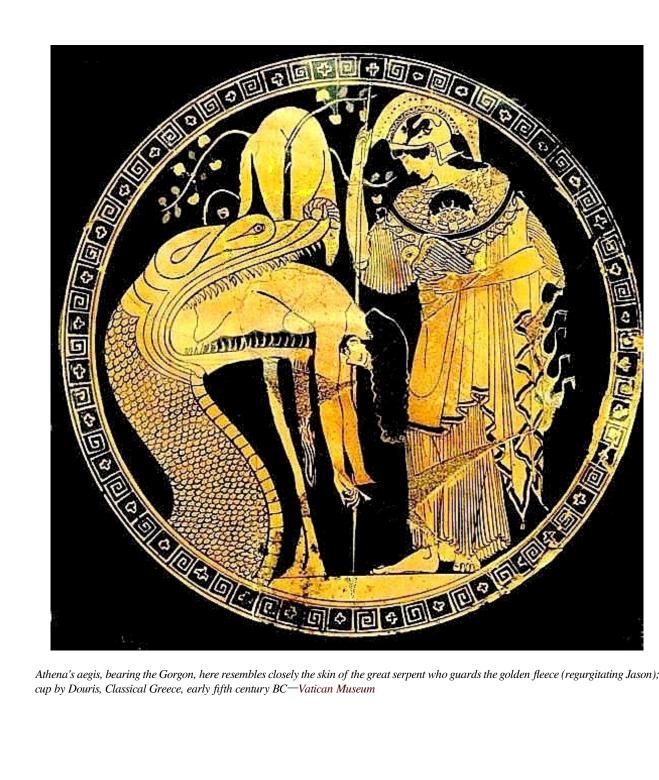
5.7 External links

- Chisholm, Hugh, ed. (1911). "Aegis". Encyclopædia Britannica (11th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Theoi Project: "Aigis"
- Die Aigis: Zu Typologie und Ikonographie eines Mythischen Gegenstandes: a Doctoral dissertation on the Ægis (Westfälischen Wilhelms-Universität, Münster 1991) by Sigrid Vierck.

5.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 35



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Athena's aegis, bearing the Gorgon, here resembles closely the skin of the great serpent who guards the golden fleece (regurgitating Jason);

5.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 37



First century BC mosaic of Alexander the Great wearing the aegis on a mosaic from Pompeii (Naples National Archaeological Museum)

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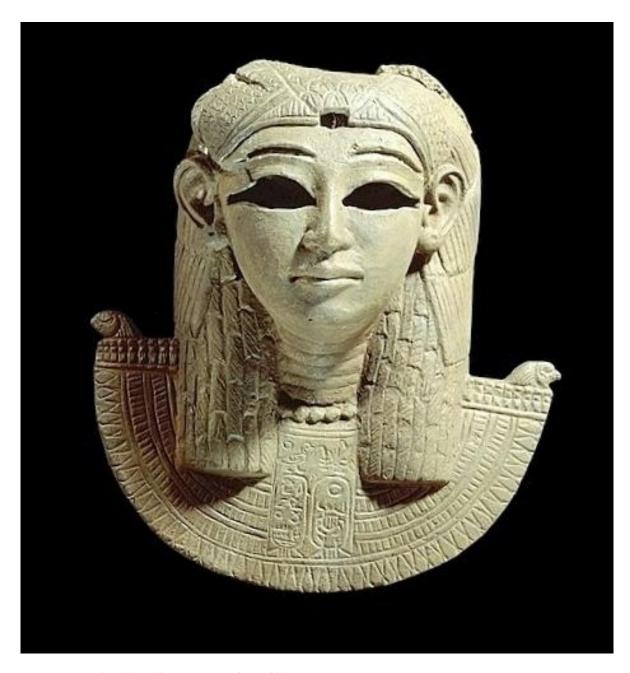
Augustus is shown with an aegis thrown over his shoulder as a divine attribute in the Blacas Cameo; the hole for the head appears at the point of his shoulder.* [8]

5.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 39



Aegis of Neith from the Twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt (c. 685–525 BC) (Museum of Fine Arts of Lyon)

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Aegis on an image of Isis from 4th-century BC Nubia (British Museum)

Ancile

In ancient Rome, the *ancilia* (Latin, singular *ancile*) were twelve sacred shields kept in the Temple of Mars. According to legend, one divine shield fell from heaven during the reign of Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome. He ordered eleven copies made to confuse would-be thieves, since the original shield was regarded as one of the *pignora imperii*, sacred guarantors that perpetuated Rome as a sovereign entity.

The *ancilia* were in the keeping of the Salii, a body of twelve priests instituted for that purpose by Numa.*[1] The Salii wielded them ritually in a procession on throughout March.

6.1 Etymology

Ancient sources give varying etymologies for the word *ancile*. Some derive it from the Greek *ankylos* (ἀγκύλος), "crooked". Plutarch thinks the word may be derived from the Greek *ankōn* (ἀγκών), "elbow", the weapon being carried on the elbow. Varro derives it *ab ancisu*, as being cut or arched on the two sides, like the bucklers of the Thracians called peltae.

6.2 Myth

When the original *ancile* fell, a voice was heard which declared that Rome should be mistress of the world while the shield was preserved. The Ancile was, as it were, the palladium of Rome. Numa, by the advice, as it is said, of the nymph Egeria, ordered eleven others, perfectly like the first, to be made. This was so that if anyone should attempt to steal it, as Ulysses did the Palladium, they might not be able to distinguish the true Ancile from the false ones.

6.3 References

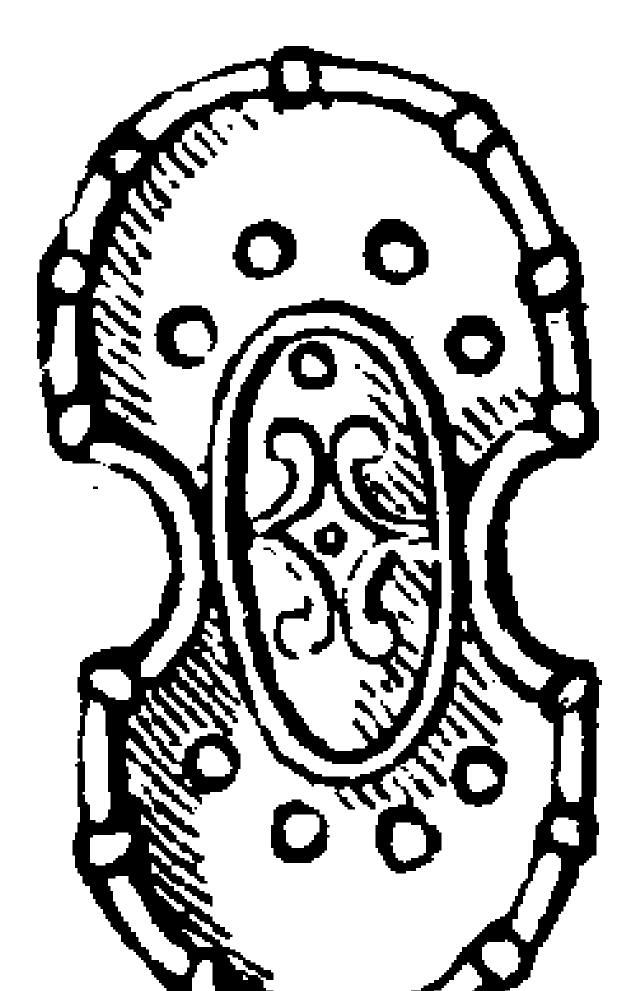
[1] Livy, Ab urbe condita, 1:20

6.4 See also

- Mars (god)
- palladium

This article incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chambers, Ephraim, ed. (1728). "*article name needed". *Cyclopædia, or an Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences* (first ed.). James and John Knapton, *et al.*

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Shield of Achilles

For other uses, see Shield of Achilles (disambiguation).

The **Shield of Achilles** is the shield that Achilles uses in his fight with Hector, famously described in a passage in Book 18, lines 478–608 of Homer's *Iliad*.

In the poem, Achilles has lost his armour after lending it to his companion Patroclus. Patroclus has been killed in battle by Hector and his weapons taken as spoils. Achilles' mother Thetis asks the god Hephaestus to provide replacement armour for her son.

The passage describing the shield is an early example of ekphrasis (a literary description of a work of visual art) and influenced many later poems, including the *Shield of Heracles* once attributed to Hesiod.*[1] Virgil's description of the shield of Aeneas in Book Eight of the *Aeneid* is clearly modelled on Homer. The poem *The Shield of Achilles* (1952) by W. H. Auden reimagines Homer's description in 20th century terms.

7.1 Description

Homer gives a detailed description of the imagery which decorates the new shield. Starting from the shield's centre and moving outward, circle layer by circle layer, the shield is laid out as follows:

- 1. The Earth, sky and sea, the sun, the moon and the constellations (484–89)
- 2. "Two beautiful cities full of people": in one a wedding and a law case are taking place (490–508); the other city is besieged by one feuding army and the shield shows an ambush and a battle (509–40).
- 3. A field being ploughed for the third time (541–49).
- 4. A king's estate where the harvest is being reaped (550–60).
- 5. A vineyard with grape pickers (561–72).
- 6. A "herd of straight-horned cattle"; the lead bull has been attacked by a pair of savage lions which the herdsmen and their dogs are trying to beat off (573–86).
- 7. A picture of a sheep farm (587–89).
- 8. A dancing-floor where young men and women are dancing (590–606).
- 9. The great stream of Ocean (607–609).*[2]



The shield's design as interpreted by Angelo Monticelli, from Le Costume Ancien ou Moderne, ca. 1820.

7.2 Interpretation

The Shield of Achilles can be read in a variety of different ways. One interpretation is that the shield is simply a physical encapsulation of the entire world. The shield's layers are a series of contrasts – i.e. war and peace, work and festival, although the presence of a murder in the city at peace suggests that man is never fully free of conflict. Wolfgang Schadewaldt, a German writer, argues that these intersecting antitheses show the basic forms of a civilized, essentially orderly life.*[3] This contrast is also seen as a way of making "us···see [war] in relation to peace.*[4]" The shield's description falls between the fight over Patroclus' body and Achilles' reentry into battle, the latter being the impetus to one of the poem's bloodiest parts. Consequently, the shield could be read as a "calm before an impending doom," used to emphasize the brutality of violence during the Trojan War. It could also be read as a reminder to the reader of what will be lost once Troy ultimately falls.*[5]

7.3. REFERENCES 45



The Shield of Achilles, from an 1832 illustration.

7.3 References

- [1] The Oxford Companion to Classical Literature (1989 ed.) p.519
- [2] Homer, The Iliad trans. E.V. Rieu (Penguin Classics, 1950) pp.349-53
- [3] Wolfgang Schadewaldt, "Der Schild des Achilleus," Von Homers Welt und Werk (Stuttgart 1959).
- [4] Oliver Taplin, "The Shield of Achilles within the *Iliad*," G&R 27 (1980) 15.
- [5] Stephen Scully, "Reading the Shield of Achilles: Terror, Anger, Delight," *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, Vol. 101. (2003), pp. 29–47.

7.4 External links

Iliad 18.490-508

Svalinn

In Norse mythology, **Svalinn** is a legendary shield which stands before the sun.

The name **Svalinn** means "cold" or "chill" and is derived from the verb svala means "cool"; svala $s\acute{e}r$ means "to slake one's thirst" and svala-drykkr is a "icing draught".

It is attested in original *Grímnismál*:

8.1 Translations

8.2 See also

• List of mythological objects

Carnwennan

Carnwennan, or **Carnwenhau** ("white hilt"), was the dagger of King Arthur in the Welsh Arthurian legends. It is sometimes attributed with the magical power to shroud its user in shadow.

In *Culhwch and Olwen* Arthur names it as one of the few things in the world which he will not give to Culhwch. Later, he uses it to slay the witch Orddu daughter of Orwen by slicing her in half.*[1]

In the Welsh Triads, Carnwennan is listed alongside Rhongomiant, Arthur's spear, and Caledfwlch, Arthur's sword, as sacred weapons given to him by God: "the sacred weapons that God had given him: Rhongomiant his spear, Caledfwlch a sword, and Carnwennan his dagger" (Bromwich's translation).*[2]

Carnwennan is exclusive to the Welsh traditions of Arthur. Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Historia Regum Britanniae* excludes it, though it mentions the sword Caliburn and lance Ron. In Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*, Arthur has a dagger which he uses to kill a giant, but it is not named.

9.1 References

- [1] Culhwlch and Olwen (Lady Charlotte Guest's translation)
- [2] "The Twenty-Four Knights of Arthur's Court", The Welsh Triads

Pashupatastra

The **Pashupatastra** (IAST: Pāśupatāstra, sanskrit: पाश्पतास्त्र), in Hindu History, is an irresistible and most destructive personal weapon of Shiva and Kali, discharged by the mind, the eyes, words, or a bow. Never to be used against lesser enemies or by lesser warriors, the Pashupatastra is capable of destroying creation and vanquishing all beings. Pashupatastra is the weapon of Pashupatinath, the most important of all Shiva temples, located in Kathmandu, Nepal.

In the Mahabharata Arjuna obtained this weapon from Lord Shiva but did not use it because this weapon would destroy the entire world, if used against a mortal enemy. Arjun didn't used this astra to slay Jayadaratha. It is said that the mantra to obtain and discharge the astra is sealed by Shiva to prevent its misuse in the Kali Yuga. It is said that no one in the three worlds can resist lord Shiva when he shows his prowess. Apart from Arjun, no other warrior posessed this weapon.

A Narrative from KMG translation of Mahabharat regarding the power of Pashupatastra:

O thou of mighty arms, that weapon(Pashupatastra) is superior to the Brahma, the Narayana, the Aindra, the Agneya, and the Varuna weapons. Verily, it is capable of neutralising every other weapon in the universe. It was with that weapon that the illustrious Mahadeva had in days of yore, burnt and consumed in a moment the triple city of the Asuras. With the greatest ease, O Govinda, Mahadeva, using that single arrow, achieved that feat. That weapon, shot by Mahadeva's arms, can, without doubt consume in half the time taken up by a twinkling of the eyes the entire universe with all its mobile and immobile creatures. In the universe there is no being including even Brahma and Vishnu and the deities, that are incapable of being slain by that weapon.

Using this weapon, the heroic Arjun could have ended the kurukshetra war in moments.

10.1 See also

- Brahmastra
- Pashupata Shaivism
- Kirātārjunīya

10.2 References

10.3 Resources

• Dictionary of Hindu Lore and Legend (ISBN 0-500-51088-1) by Anna Dallapiccola



Shiva gives the Pashupata to Arjuna

Varunastra

The Varunastra (Sanskrit वरुणास्त्र) is the water weapon (a storm) according to the Indian scriptures, incepted by Varuna. In stories it is said to assume any weapon's shape, just like water. As per the Indian legends or Puranas this weapon is said to have been obtained by great warrior characters such as Arjuna, Satyaki, Dhrishtadhuymna, Dronacharya, and many other illustrious warrior characters. The scriptures says this weapon was obtained by meditating on Varuna or Shiva, and was to be used with great care and skill. The usage of weapon was not possible for any inexperienced warrior, as a slight mistake committed, and the user himself could be destroyed. Indian scriptures and epics give large insights about weapons used by proper use of mantras. Weapons were used by chanting of mantras in the manner prescribed.

Astra (weapon)

In Hinduism, an **astra** (Sanskrit: अस्त्र) was a supernatural weapon, presided over by a specific deity. Later, it came to denote any hand-carried weapon.

12.1 Astradhari

The bearer of the weapon is called astradhari (Sanskrit: अस्त्रधारी).*[1]

12.2 Summoning of Astra

To summon or use an *astra* required knowledge of a specific incantation/invocation, when armed. The deity invoked would then endow the weapon, making it impossible to counter through regular means.

Specific conditions existed involving the usage of *astras*, the violation of which could be fatal. Because of the power involved, the knowledge involving an *astra* was passed in the Guru-shishya tradition from a Guru (teacher) to a *Shishya* (pupil) by word of mouth alone, and only following the establishment of the student's character.

Certain astras had to be handed down from the deity involved directly, knowledge of the incantation being insufficient.

12.3 Astras in Hindu Epics

Astras come into importance mainly in the Ramayana and Mahabharata, where they are used in the great battles described in each epic. They are depicted as used by archers such as Rama, Lakshman, Arjuna, Meghnad, Karna etc.

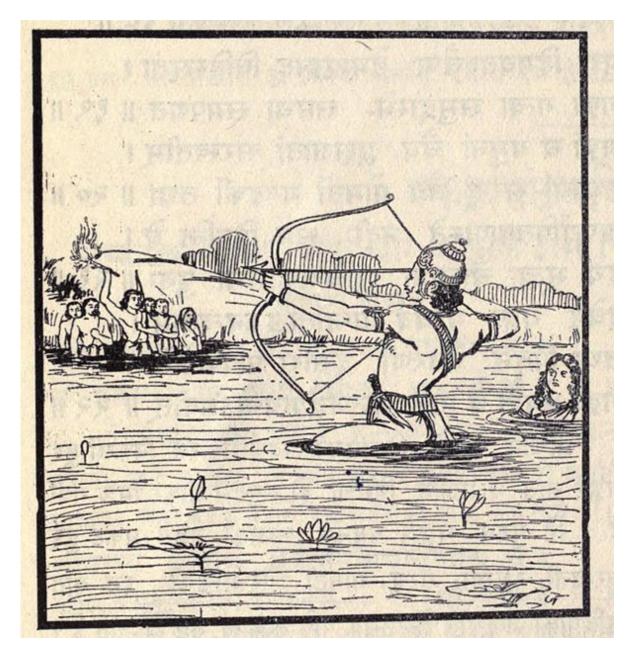
The astras were generally invoked into arrows, although they could potentially be used with anything—Ashwatthaman invoked an astra using a blade of grass as his weapon.

Indrajit the son of Ravana, is believed to be the only human who ever possessed the three ultimate weapons of trinity. At a very young age, Indrajit (Meghnada) became the possessor of several supreme celestial weapons, including Brahmastra, Pashupatastra and Vaishnavastra, under the guidance of Shukra, the Guru of the Daityas (demons).

12.4 References

- 1. "The Ramayana" 2. "The Mahabharata" 3. "Bhagavata Purana"
 - [1] Astradhari definition

12.4. REFERENCES 53



Arjun use Agneyastra against Angaraparna

- [2] Brahmarshi Ramana
- $[3] \ http://www.harekrsna.de/artikel/sudarsana-chakra.htm$



Arjuna gifted Arrow of Fire to Gandarva

Asi (Mahabharata)

The common term for "sword" in Classical Sanskrit is *khadga* (whence modern Hindi *khanda*), in Rigvedic Sanskrit still as a term for a kind of sacrificial dagger or knife.

This word appears as a proper name, *Asi*, of the personification of the first sword created by Brahma. A legend concerning the **sword** appears in the Shantiparva section of Mahabharata (MBH 12.167.1-87 Vulgo; MBH 12.161.1-87 (Critical)) .*[1]

13.1 Frame narrative

Out of curiosity, Nakula, the fourth son of Pandu and the master of swordsmanship, had questioned the Kuru Grandsire Bhishma, on his arrowy death bed, as to which was the best weapon in all kinds of fighting. In his own personal views, Nakula thought the sword to be the most superior, since even on having lost one's bow, horse and the chariot, a skilful swordsman could still defend himself against the mace and spear wielders. Nakula further queried the Grandsire about the origin and purpose of the Khadga as well as about its first acharya ("teacher, preceptor").

Gladdened by these intelligent queries by Nakula, Bhishma related to him the complete *Itihaasa* (Sanskrit term for 'History') of the Khadga or "divine sword" starting from its creation down to the present (i.e., time of Bharata war).

13.2 Creation of asi

The Gods, or rather Devas, approached Brahma, the creator of the universe, and protested against the unjust rule and evil doings of the demons (Danavas, namely Asuras, who belonged to an evil human race with giant build). Hearing the protest from the Gods, Brahma collected sacrificial objects and proceeded to perform a grand sacrifice with the foremost of the Rishis and Devas at the side of Himalaya.

During the course of the sacrifice, a dreadful creature sprang from the midst of the sacrificial fires scattering flames all around. It was as though a moon had arisen in the midst of the stars. He was colored like a deep-blue lotus. His teeth were sharp and terrible, stomach lean and skinny and stature very tall and slim. He was of exceeding energy and power. Simultaneously, the earth started shaking, there were turmoils in the oceans, the forceful winds started howling all around, the trees started falling and being torn apart, and the meteors started blazing through the skies!

Brahma declared:

The 'being' I have conceived is Asi. It shall effect the destruction of the enemies of the gods and restore the Dharma (righteousness).

Upon this, the creature assumed the form of a blazing, sharp-edged sword, glowing like the flames at the end of the Kalpa (aeon).

13.3 Succession of wielders of asi

Brahma gave that sword to Rudra with the bull-banner and asked him to put down the sinners and evil-doers and restore the Dharma.

Rudra, assuming his terrible form, took up the sword and started the war against the Danavas, thus tearing, piercing, lopping off, chopping off and smashing and mutilating these enemies of the Devas and the Praja.

The earth became miry with flesh and blood of *Daityas* (or giants) and looked like a fair-complexioned maid intoxicated with alcohol and attired in crimson robes in a full abandon.

Having extirpated the entire community of Daityas and after restoring Dharma, Rudra cast off his awful form and assumed the usual benign shape Shiva.

Rudra gave the sword, dyed with the blood of the Daityas, to Vishnu. He gave it to the Indra. Deva Indra, then gave it to other Devas.

The Devas then presented the mighty sword to Manu, advising him to wield it with utmost care, only resorting to it for punishing the transgressors of the Dharma. Mutilations and death punishments shall never be inflicted for small transgressions.

Manu used this *Daevi Khadga* or *Divine Sword* wisely and then passed it to his son *Kshupa*. From Kshupa it passed to Manu's other son Ikshvaku. From him it went to *Pururavas*, born of Ila. From him it went to *Ayu*. From him it passed to *Nahusha*. From him it passed to *Puru*. From him it was wrested by *Amurtarayas* of the clan of the Amavasus. From him it went to *Bhumishaya*. From him it went to *Bharata Daushyanti*. From him it went to *Ailavila*, the upholder of Dharma. From him it went to *Kuvalashva*, the Aikshvakava of Kosala.

From king Kuvalashva, the sword was wrested by Kamboja i.e. the king of Kambojas.

From Kamboja, the Khadga passed on to Muchukunda (of Ikshvaku dynasty). From Muchukunda it went to Maruta.

From Maruta it went to *Raivata*. From him to *Yuvanashva*. From him it went to Raghu, the great conqueror. From him it went to *Harinashva*. From him it went to *Shunaka*. From him it went to *Ushinara*. From him it went to the *Bhojas and Yadavas*. From the Yadus it went to *Shivi*. From him it went to the *Partardanas* of Kashi. Then it was taken by *Vishvamitras* of the Ashtaka lineage. Then it was taken by the Panchala Prishadashva. From him it went to the Brahmins of the Bharadvaja lineage. The last of that lineage was Drona. He gave to Kripacharya. He in turn gave it to the Pandavas.

Krittika is the Nakshatra of the sword, Rohini the gotra, Agni the deity, and Rudra the Maharshi. It is truly the upholder of Dharma.

It is the foremost of the striking weapons of the son of Madravati.

13.4 References

[1] Political and Moral Concepts in the Śāntiparvan of the Mahābhārata, 1990, p 166, Y. S. Walimbe.

13.5 External links

- Mahabharata Sword
- The Mahabharata: Book 11: The Book of Peace, Part 1, edited by James L Fitzgerald
- Durga Puja, pp lviii-lix, Pratāpacandra Ghosha

Crocea Mors

Crocea Mors (Latin for "Yellow Death") was the name given to Julius Caesar's sword, according to the legends presented by Geoffrey of Monmouth. In Middle Welsh versions, it is called *Angau Coch* ("Red Death") or *Agheu Glas* ("Grey Death").

The British prince Nennius acquired it when, during single combat with Caesar, it got stuck in his shield. It killed everyone Nennius struck with it. Nennius died fifteen days after the battle of a head wound inflicted by Caesar, and the sword was buried with him.

14.1 References

• Geoffrey of Monmouth, Historia Regum Britanniae 4.3-4

Gan Jiang and Mo Ye

"Gan Jiang" redirects here. For the river, see Gan River (disambiguation).

Gan Jiang (Chinese: 干將; pinyin: Gān Jiàng) and Mo Ye (Chinese: 莫邪; pinyin: Mò Yé) were a swordsmith couple who lived during the Spring and Autumn Period of Chinese history. A pair of swords were forged by and named after them.

15.1 History

According to the historical text *Wuyue Chunqiu*, King Helü of Wu ordered Gan Jiang and Mo Ye to forge a pair of swords for him in three months.*[1] However, the blast furnace failed to melt the metal. Mo Ye suggested that there was insufficient human *qi* in the furnace so the couple cut their hair and nails and cast them into the furnace, while 300 children helped to blow air into the bellows.<ref="Wuyue Chunqiu" /> In another account, Mo Ye sacrificed herself to increase human *qi* by throwing herself into the furnace. The desired result was achieved after three years and the two swords were named after the couple. Gan Jiang kept the male sword, Ganjiang, for himself and presented the female sword, Moye, of the pair to the king. The king was already very unpleasant since he ordered the sword made in three months time but Ganjiang did not come back in three years, when he discovered Gan Jiang had kept the male sword, he was angered and had Gan Jiang killed.

The assassin severed Chi's head and brought it, along with the Ganjiang sword to the overjoyed king. The king was however uncomfortable with Chi's head staring at him, and the assassin asked the king to have Chi's head boiled, but Chi's head was still staring at the king even after 40 days without sign of decomposing, thus the assassin told the king that he needed to take a closer look and stare back in order for the head to decompose under the power of the king. The king bent over the cauldron and the assassin seized the opportunity to decapitate him, his head falling into the cauldron alongside Chi's. The assassin then cut off his own head, which also fell into the boiling water. The flesh on the heads was boiled away such that none of the guards could recognize which head belonged to whom. The guards and vassals decided since all three should be honoured as kings(With Chi and the assassin being so brave and loyal) The three heads were eventually buried together at Yichun County, Runan, Henan, and the grave is called "Tomb of Three Kings". *[2]

15.2 Historical records and legacy

Historical texts Xunzi and Mozi from the Warring States period mention the existence of the Ganjiang and Moye Swords.

The official biography of Zhang Hua in the historical text *Book of Jin* records that the two swords reappeared during the early Jin Dynasty. The swords were later buried at Yanping Ford (present-day Yanping District, Nanping, Fujian). A monument for the swords stands is still present in Yanping District.

Mount Mogan in Deqing County, Zhejiang, is named in memory of Gan Jiang and Mo Ye.

15.3 References

- [1] Zhao, Ye (c. 50). Wuyue Chunqiu (Wu and Yue in the Spring and Autumn Period).
- [2] Gan, Bao. *In Search of the Supernatural: The Written Record*, translated into English by Kenneth J. DeWoskin and James Irving Crump. Stanford University Press, 1996. ISBN 0-8047-2506-3.

Harpe

For other uses, see Harpe (disambiguation).

The Harpe ($\Hagmapha \rho \pi \eta$) was a type of Sword or Sickle; a sword with a sickle protrusion along one edge near the tip of the blade. The Harpe is mentioned in Greek and Roman sources, and almost always is mythological contexts.

The Harpe sword is most notably identified as the weapon used by Cronus to castrate his father, Uranus. Alternately, said weapon is identified as a more traditional Sickle or Scythe. The Harpe, Scythe or Sickle was either a Flint or Adamantine (Diamond) blade, and was provided to a then-unborn Cronus by his mother, Gaia:

While Uranus kept siring children with Gaia, he would not let her give birth to them, for fear of being overthrown by his own children. This state of affairs left Gaia in incresingly excruciating pain, as she fell pregnant with even more and more children, all of who she was prevented from birthing. Gaia asked each of her unborn children to rise up against Uranus and free her, but was refused by all but the youngest, Cronus. So, Gaia provides him with a blade, (a Harpe, Sickle or Scythe); and when Uranus next came to lay with Gaia, Cronus lept up into action and castrated his father, overthrowing him and driving him away forever. Thus the blade, (either a Harpe, Sickle or Scythe), became a symbol of Cronus' power.

Perseus, (a demigod grandson of Cronus'), is also regularly depicted in statues and sculpture, armed with a Harpe sword in his quest to slay Medusa and recover her head. Perseus was provided with such a sword by his father, Zeus (Cronus' youngest son and later overthrower).

In Greek and Roman art it is variously depicted, but it seems that originally it was a Khopesh-like sickle-sword.

Later depictions often show it as a combination of a sword and sickle, and this odd interpretation is explicitly described in the 2nd century *Leucippe and Clitophon**[1]

16.1 See also

- Gladius
- Xiphos
- Kopis
- Makhaira
- Khopesh
- Iron Age sword

16.1. SEE ALSO 61



"Perseus with the Head of Medusa" depicts Perseus armed with a Harpe Sword when he beheaded Medusa.

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- Scythe
- Sickle

16.2 Notes

[1] Achilles Tatius, Leucippe and Clitophon 3.7.8—9: "ὥπλισται δὲ καὶ τὴν δεξιὰν διφυεῖ σιδήρφ εἰς δρέπανον καὶ ξίφος ἐσχισμένφ. ἄρχεται μὲν γὰρ ἡ κώπη κάτωθεν ἀμφοῖν ἐκ μιᾶς, καὶ ἔστιν ἐφ' ἥμισυ τοῦ σιδήρου ξίφος, ἐντεῦθεν δὲ ἀπορραγὲν τὸ μὲν ὀξύνεται, τὸ δὲ ἐπικάμπτεται. καὶ τὸ μὲν ἀπωξυμμένον μένει ξίφος, ὡς ἤρξατο, τὸ δὲ καμπτόμενον δρέπανον γίνεται, ἵνα μιᾳ πληγῆ τὸ μὲν ἐρείδῃ τὴν σφαγήν, τὸ δὲ κρατῆ τὴν τομήν.

Thuận Thiên (sword)

Thuận Thiên (順天, Heaven's Will) was the mythical sword of the Vietnamese King Lê Lợi, who liberated Vietnam from Ming occupation after ten years of fighting from 1418 until 1428.*[1] Lê Lợi then proclaimed himself king of the newly established Lê Dynasty. According to legend, the sword possessed magical power, which supposedly made Lê Lợi grow very tall. When he used the sword it gave him the strength of a thousand men, and the legend is often used to justify Lê Lợi's rule over Vietnam. The sword has been associated with Lê Lợi since the early phase of the Lê Dynasty.

17.1 Name

The Thuận Thiên sword was used to affirm the legitimacy of Lê Lợi as the Vietnamese leader in the revolution against the Ming occupation and associated with Lê Lợi the rightful sovereignty of Vietnam. In Vietnam, the legitimacy of the monarch is known as the mandate of heaven.

17.2 Legend

See also: Lê Lơi

Lê Lợi revolted in 1418 against the Ming Dynasty, who had invaded and occupied Vietnam in 1407. Initially the military campaign against the Chinese was only moderately successful. While Lê Lợi was able to operate in his home province of Thanh Hóa, for the first 2–3 years, he was unable to muster the military forces required to defeat the Ming army in battle. As a result, he waged a guerrilla campaign against the large and well organized Chinese army. According to legend, to help Lê Lợi, a local God, the Dragon King (Vietnamese: Long Vương) decided to lend his sword to Lê Lợi. But there was a catch; the sword did not come straight to him in one piece. It was split into two parts: a blade and a sword hilt.

First, in Thanh Hóa province, there was a fisherman named Lê Thận, who was not related to Lê Lợi in any way. One night, his fishing net caught something heavy. Thinking of how much money he would get for this big fish, he became very excited. However, his excitement soon turned into disappointment when he saw that his catch was a long, thin piece of metal which had somehow become entangled to the net. He threw it back into the water, and recast the net at a different location. When he pulled the net in, the metal piece had found its way back into the net. He picked it up and threw it far away with all its strength. The third time the fishing net came up, the same thing happened, the metal piece was once again caught in the net. Bewildered, he brought his lamp closer and carefully examined the strange object. Only then did he notice that it was the missing blade of a sword. He took the blade home and not knowing what to do with it, put it in the corner of his house.

Some years later, Lê Thận joined the rebel army of Lê Lợi, where he quickly rose in ranks. Once, the general visited Lê Thận's home. Lê Thận's house lacked lighting, so everything was dark. But as though it was sensing the presence of Lê Lợi, the blade at the corner of the house suddenly emitted a bright glow. Lê Lợi held up the blade and saw two words manifesting before his very eye: *Thuận Thiên* (Will of Heaven). With Lê Thận's endorsement, Lê Lợi took the



A depiction of Lê Lợi.

blade with him. One day, while on the run from the enemy, Lê Lợi saw a strange light emanating from the branches of a banyan tree. He climbed up and there he found a hilt of a sword, encrusted with precious gems. Remembering the blade he found earlier, he took it out and placed it into the hilt. The fit was perfect. Believing that the Heaven had entrusted him with the great cause of freeing the land, Lê Lợi took up arms and rallied people under his banner. For the next few



A 14th century single edged curved blade called "gươm"- Thuận Thiên may belong to this class of sword

years, the magic sword brought him victory after another. His men no longer had to hide in the forest, but aggressively penetrated many enemy camps, captured them and seized their granaries. The sword helped them push back the enemy, until Vietnam was once again free from Chinese rule. Lê Lợi ascended the throne in 1428, ending his 10-year campaign, and reclaimed independence for the country.

One year after ascending the throne, Lê Lợi was on a dragon boat cruising around Hồ Lục Thủy (Green Water Lake), directly in front of his palace. When they came to the middle of the lake, a giant turtle with a golden shell (Kim Qui) emerged from under the water surface. Lê Lợi ordered the captain to slow down, and at the same time looked down to see that the magic sword on his belt was moving on its own. The golden turtle advanced toward the boat and the king, then with a human voice, it asked him to return the magic sword to his master, Long Vương (Dragon King), who lived under the water. It suddenly became clear to Lê Lợi that the sword was only lent to him to carry out his duty, but now it must be returned to its rightful owner, lest it corrupt him. Lê Lợi drew the sword out of its scabbard and lobbed it towards the turtle. With great speed, the turtle opened its mouth and snatched the sword from the air with its teeth. It descended back into the water, with the shiny sword in its mouth, and for a long period a flickering light was said to have been seen from beyond the muddled depths of the lake. From then on, people renamed that lake to Hồ Gươm (Sword Lake) or Hồ Hoàn Kiếm (Lake of the Returned Sword).

17.3 Historical analysis

A few historians believe that the Thuận Thiên sword was an expedient of Lê Lợi's strategist Nguyễn Trãi, regarding it as a ploy to gain legitimacy for Lê Lợi to lead an uprising against the Chinese. The expedient was successful, as the sword's legend quickly spread across the country, leading the populace to regard Lê Lợi as the rightful ruler of Vietnam, especially among those with high levels of antipathy towards the Chinese, who were longstanding historical enemies of Vietnam.



A statue of Lê Lợi and his sword in Thanh Hóa, Vietnam

17.4. REFERENCES 67

17.4 References

[1] Thế Đũng Hàn *Lê Lợi: tiểu thuyết lịch sử* 2002 Page 17 "Đệ nhìn kỹ thì nhận ra đó là lưỡi kiếm, hai chữ Thuận Thiên nổi lên màu vàng rực rỡ."

Vietnamese

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- Khu di tích Tượng vua Lê Department of Tourism Hanoi.
- Các triều đại Việt Nam Lê Thái Tổ Author: http://lichsu.ttvn.net/

English

• Lê Thái Tổ (1385 –1433) Hanoi City Official Website.

17.5 External links

• Vietnamese:Lê Lợi Văn Học Đất Việt.

Kris

For other uses of the word "kris", see Kris (disambiguation). For other uses of the word "KERIS", see KERIS (disambiguation).

The **kris** (*Ngoko* Javanese: [2][2]; *[1] *Krama* Javanese: [2][2][2]; *[2] *Ngoko* Gêdrìk: *kêrìs*; *Krama* Gêdrìk: *wangkingan*; literally: *to slice*), is an asymmetrical dagger with distinctive blade-patterning achieved through alternating laminations of iron and nickelous iron (*pamor*). *[3] While most strongly associated with the culture of Indonesia the kris is also indigenous to Malaysia, Thailand, Brunei and Singapore. It is known as kalis in the southern Philippines. The kris is famous for its distinctive wavy blade, although many have straight blades as well.

Kris have been produced in many regions of the Indonesian archipelago for centuries, but nowhere —although the island of Bali comes close —is the kris so embedded in a mutually-connected whole of ritual prescriptions and acts, ceremonies, mythical backgrounds and epic poetry as in Central Java.*[4] As a result, in Indonesia the kris is commonly associated with Javanese culture, although other ethnicities such as the Balinese, Sundanese, Madurese, Banjar, Siamese and Malay people are familiar with the weapon as part of their culture.

A kris can be divided into three parts: *bilah* (blade), *hulu* (hilt), and *warangka* (sheath). These parts of the kris are objects of art, often carved in meticulous detail and made from various materials: metal, precious or rare types of wood, or gold or ivory. A kris's aesthetic value covers the *dhapur* (the form and design of the blade, with around 150 variants), the *pamor* (the pattern of metal alloy decoration on the blade, with around 60 variants), and *tangguh* referring to the age and origin of a kris.*[5] Depending on the quality and historical value of the kris, it can fetch thousands of dollars or more.

Both a weapon and spiritual object, kris are often considered to have an essence or presence, considered to possess magical powers, with some blades possessing good luck and others possessing bad.*[5] Kris are used for display, as talismans with magical powers, weapons, a sanctified heirloom (*pusaka*), auxiliary equipment for court soldiers, an accessory for ceremonial dress, an indicator of social status, a symbol of heroism, etc.*[5] Legendary kris that possess supernatural power and extraordinary ability were mentioned in traditional folktales, such as those of Mpu Gandring, Taming Sari, and Setan Kober.

In 2005, UNESCO gave the title Masterpiece of the Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity to the kris of Indonesia. In return, UNESCO urged Indonesia to preserve their heritage.*[5]

18.1 Etymology

The word *kris* derives from the Old Javanese term **ngiris** (Javanese: [2][2][2]]) which means to slice, wedge or sliver. "Kris" is the more frequently used spelling in the West, but "keris" is more popular in the dagger's native lands, *[6] as exemplified by the late Bambang Harsrinuksmo's popular book entitled *Ensiklopedi Keris* (Kris Encyclopedia). Two notable exceptions are the Philippines, where it is usually called kalis or kris, and Thailand, where it is always spelled and pronounced as kris. Other spellings used by European colonists include "cryse", "crise", "crise", "kriss" and "creese."

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18.2 History

18.2.1 Origin



Kris depicted on Borobudur bas-relief.

Kris history is generally traced through the study of carvings and bas-relief panels found in Southeast Asia. It is believed that the earliest kris prototype can be traced to Dong Son bronze culture in Vietnam circa 300 BC that spread to other parts of Southeast Asia. Another theory is that the kris was based on daggers from India.*[7] Some of the most famous renderings of a kris appear on the bas-reliefs of Borobudur (825) and Prambanan temple (850). However, Raffles' (1817) study of the Candi Sukuh states that the kris recognized today came into existence around 1361 AD in the kingdom of Majapahit, East Java. The scene in bas relief of Sukuh Temple in Central Java, dated from 15th century Majapahit era, shows the workshop of a Javanese keris blacksmith. The scene depicted Bhima as the blacksmith on the left forging the metal, Ganesha in the center, and Arjuna on the right operating the piston bellows to blow air into the furnace. The wall behind the blacksmith displays various items manufactured in the forge, including kris. These representations of the kris in the Candi Sukuh established the fact that by the year 1437 the kris had already gained an important place within Javanese culture.

In Yingyai Shenglan—a record about Zheng He's expedition (1405-1433)—Ma Huan describes that

"all men in Majapahit, from the king to commoners, from a boy aged three to elders, slipped *pu-la-t'ou* (*belati* or more precisely *kris* dagger) in their belts. The daggers are made entirely of steel with intricate motifs smoothly drawn. The handles are made of gold, rhino's horn or ivory carved with a depiction of

human or demon; the carving works are exquisite and skillfully made." *[8]

This Chinese account also reported that public execution by stabbing using this type of dagger is common. Majapahit knows no caning for major or minor punishment. They tied the guilty men's hands in the back with rattan rope and paraded them for a few paces, and then stabbed the offender one or two times in the back on the gap between the floating ribs, which resulted in severe bleeding and instant death.

18.2.2 Development and distribution

Although the people of Southeast Asia were already familiar with this type of stabbing weapon, the development of the kris however most probably took place in Java. The spread of the kris to other nations such as Thailand, Malaysia and the Philippines, experts say, was credited to the growing influence of the Majapahit Empire in Java around the year 1492.*[3]

The Sanghyang siksakanda ng karesian canto XVII, a Sundanese manuscript dated from Saka 1440 or 1518 AD, describes the kris as the weapon of kings, while the kujang is the weapon of farmers. There exist claims of earlier forms predating the Majapahit kris but none are verifiable. In the past, the majority of kris had straight blades but this became less frequent over time. Tomé Pires, in the early 16th century, describes the importance of the kris to the Javanese.*[9]

... every man in Java, whether he is rich or poor, must have a kris in his house .. and no man between the ages of 12 and 80 may go out of doors without a kris in his belt. They carry them at the back, as daggers used to be in Portugal...

—Tome Pires, Suma Oriental

While it is commonly believed that kris were the primary weapons wielded by fighters in the past, they were actually carried by warriors as a secondary armament if they lost their main weapon, which was usually a spear. For commoners however, kris were worn on a daily basis, especially when travelling because it might be needed for self-defense. During times of peace, people wore kris as part of ceremonial attire. Ceremonial kris were often meticulously decorated with intricate carving in gold and precious stones. Heirloom blades were handed down through successive generations and worn during special events such as weddings and other ceremonies. Men usually wore only one kris but the famous admiral Hang Tuah is said in the Hikayat Hang Tuah to have armed himself with one short and one long kris. Women also wore kris, though usually of a smaller size than a man's. In battle, a fighter might have carried more than one kris; some carried three kris: his own, one from his father-in-law, and one as a family heirloom. The extra two served as parrying daggers, but if none were available the sheath would serve the same purpose.

Kris were often broken in battle and required repairs. Yearly cleanings, required as part of the spirituality and mythology surrounding the weapon, often left ancient blades worn and thin. The repair materials depended on location and it is quite usual to find a weapon with fittings from several areas. For example, a kris may have a blade from Java, a hilt from Bali and a sheath from Madura.

In many parts of Indonesia, the kris used to be the choice weapon for execution. The executioner's kris had a long, straight, slender blade. The condemned knelt before the executioner, who placed a wad of cotton or similar material on the subject's shoulder or clavicle area. The blade was thrust through the padding, piercing the subclavian artery and the heart. Upon withdrawal, the cotton wiped the blade clean. Death came within seconds.

In the 16th century, European colonial power introduced firearms into the archipelago that contribute to the decline of kris' prominence as the weapon of choice in battle. The forging of the edged weapons went into decline from the moment that the sultans or rajas were subjugated and their realms annexed by the British or Dutch East Indies colonial state. In number of regions, a ban was placed on carrying of cutting and stabbing weapons. In Java, the turning point was the end of the five-year-long Java War when the rebellious Prince Diponegoro was defeated and detained, and had to hand his kris over to the Dutch in 1830. This event marked the disarmament of the kris as a combat weapon among the Javanese populace. Its ceremonial function, however, as part of traditional costumes, as sacred heirloom and as a protective personal amulet, remains. The early 20th century saw the decline of kris forging as carrying edged weapons was banned in the Dutch East Indies.* [10] However its spiritual and ceremonial function still continues and is celebrated mainly in *kraton* and *istana* (courts) throughout Indonesia and Malaysia.

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Kris blacksmith's workshop depicted in 15th century Candi Sukuh.

18.2.3 Kris today

In Java, the traditional art of kris-making is preserved in the Javanese culture heartland, the *keraton* (royal court) of Yogyakarta and Surakarta, and also the princedom of Mangkunegaran and Pakualaman. The Javanese kings and nobles of these courts are known to employ some *empu* (kris blaksmiths) and become the patrons of their works, although the activity of kris-making is declining. Until the 1990s, kris-making activities in Java had almost come to a standstill due to economic difficulties and changing socio-cultural values. However, thanks to several concerned kris experts, the tradition is being revived and kris craftsmanship has increased again.

Over the past three decades, kris have lost their prominent social and spiritual meaning in society. Although active and honoured *empu* (blacksmiths) who produce high quality kris in the traditional way can still be found in some places such as Madura, Surakarta, Yogyakarta, Makassar and Palembang, their number is dramatically decreasing, and it is more difficult for them to find successors to whom they may transmit their skills.*[5] The traditional kris-making industry still survives in some villages, such as Banyu Sumurup village in Imogiri subdistrict, Bantul, Yogyakarta, either specially made as a sacred amulet ordered by a kris enthusiast that seeks its spiritual power, or merely as souvenir for tourists.*[11]

18.3 Description

A kris's aesthetic value covers the *dhapur* (the form and design of the blade, with around 150 variants), the *pamor* (the pattern of metal alloy decoration on the blade, with around 60 variants), and *tangguh* referring to the age and origin of a kris.*[5]

18.3.1 Blade

The kris blade is called a *wilah* or *bilah*. Kris blades are usually narrow with a wide, asymmetrical base. The kris is famous for its wavy blade; however, the older types of kris dated from the Majapahit era have straight blades.*[12] The number of *luk* or curves on the blade is always odd.*[13] Common numbers of luk range from three to thirteen waves, but some blades have up to 29.*[14] In contrast to the older straight type, most kris today have a wavy blade which is supposed to increase the severity of wounds inflicted upon a victim.*[13] During kris stabbing, the wavy blade severs more blood vessels, creating a wider wound which causes the victim to easily bleed to death.

According to traditional Javanese kejawen, kris contain all the intrinsic elements of nature: *tirta* (water), *bayu* (wind), *agni* (fire), *bantolo* (earth, but also interpreted as metal or wood which both come from the earth), and *aku* (lit: "I" or "me", meaning that the kris has a spirit or soul). All these elements are present during the forging of kris. Earth is metal forged by fire being blown by pumped wind, and water to cool down the metal.*[15] In Bali, the kris is associated with the nāga or dragon, which also symbolizes irrigation canals, rivers, springs, wells, spouts, waterfalls and rainbows; thus, the wavy blade symbolizes the movement of the serpent. Some kris have a naga or serpent head carved near the base with the body and tail following the curves of the blade to the tip. A wavy kris is thus a naga in motion, aggressive and alive; a straight blade is one at rest, its power dormant but ready to come into action.*[16]

In former times, kris blades were said to be infused with poison during their forging, ensuring that any injury was fatal. The process of doing so was kept secret among smiths. Different types of whetstones, acidic juice of citrus fruits and poisonous arsenic bring out the contrast between the dark black iron and the light colored silvery nickel layers which together form *pamor*, damascene patterns on the blade.

18.3.2 **Pamor**

The distinctive *pamor* patterns have specific meanings and names which indicate the special magical properties they are believed to impart. There are around 60 variants of *pamor* recognized today in traditional kris blades. Some examples of *pamor* include *beras wutah*, *udan mas*, *kembang kacang*, *kembang pala* and *ladrang cendana*. The kris blade forging uses iron with a small content of nickel to create this pattern. The faint *pamor* pattern has been found in the kris from Majapahit period, which was acquired from iron ores with small nickel content. Most probably this iron ore was imported from the island of Sulawesi, as the *pamor Luwu* from Luwu region is quite well know in Sulawesi and Java.

The best material for creating *pamor* however, is acquired in a quite unusual way, as it is made from rare meteorite iron. Traditionally the *pamor* material for the kris smiths connected with the courts of Yogyakarta and Surakarta originates from an iron meteorite that fell to earth at the end of 18th century in the neighborhood of the Prambanan temple complex. The meteorite was excavated and transported to the keraton of Surakarta; from that time on the smiths of *Vorstenlanden* (the Royal territories) used small pieces of meteoric iron to produce *pamor* patterns in their kris, pikes, and other status weapons. After etching the blade with acidic substances, it was the small percentage of nickel present in meteoric iron that creates the distinctive silvery patterns that faintly light up against the dark background of iron or steel that become darkened by the effect of the acids.*[17]

18.3.3 Hilt

The handle or hilt (*hulu*) is an object of art, often carved in meticulous details and made from various materials: precious rare types of wood to gold or ivory. They were often carved to resemble various Hindu gods and deities, although this became less common with the introduction of Islam. In Bali, kris handles are made to resemble demons coated in gold and adorned with semi precious and precious stones, such as rubies. In Java, kris handles are made in various types, the most

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common design being the abstract stylized representation of the human form. Examples of hilt designs include Tunggak Semi Putri Kinurung hilt from Surakarta, Batara Guru and Pulasir hilt from Madura, Punukan hilt from Palembang, Ratmaja from Bali, Pulungan hilt from Cirebon, Pekaka hilt from Pattani, and a seabird-like hilt from Lampung and Sulawesi.*[18] The kris usually has a curved pistol-grip hilt that aids in stabbing strikes. It allows the palm of the holding hand to add pressure to the blade while stabbing. A kris only offers minimal protection for the hand by the broad blade at the hilt. In rare cases, the blade may be forged so its axis lies at an angle to the hilt's axis. The intention is to get the blade automatically turning to slip past the ribs but this works poorly and makes the weapon less durable.

18.3.4 Sheath

As with the hilt, a kris' sheath (*warangka*) is also an object of art. It can be made from various materials, usually a wooden frame to hold the blade which can be coated with metals such as brass, iron, silver, or even gold, usually carved in *sulur* floral motifs. The upper part of the sheath formed a broad curved handle made from wood or sometimes ivory. It could be adorned with precious or semi-precious stones.

18.4 Forging

The making of a kris was the specialised duty of metalworkers called *empu* or *pandai besi* (lit. "iron-skilled"). In Bali this occupation has been preserved by the Pande clan to this day, members of whom also made jewellery. A bladesmith makes the blade in layers of different iron ores and meteorite nickel. Some blades can be made in a relatively short time, while more intricate weapons take years to complete. In high quality kris blades, the metal is folded dozens or hundreds of times and handled with the utmost precision. Empu are highly respected craftsmen with additional knowledge in literature, history, and the occult.*[5]

18.5 Cultural beliefs

Kris were worn at special ceremonies, with heirloom blades being handed down through successive generations. Both men and women might wear them, though those for women are smaller. A rich spirituality and mythology developed around the weapon. Kris are used for display, as talismans with magical powers, weapons, sanctified heirloom, auxiliary equipment for court soldiers, as an accessory for ceremonial dress, an indicator of social status, a symbol of heroism, etc.*[5]

In Javanese culture the kris is revered as *tosan aji* (Javanese for "sacred heirloom weapon") and considered a pusaka. The kris is believed to have the ability to infuse bravery upon its holder: this property is known as *piyandel* in Javanese which means "to add self-confidence". The *pusaka* kris or kris-tipped spear given by a Javanese king to nobles or his subjects, was meant to symbolize the king's confidence bestowed upon the receiver and is considered a great honor. During the Javanese wedding ceremony, a kris is required to be adorned with chains of jasmine flower arrangement as an important part of Javanese groom's wedding costume. The addition of jasmine arrangement around the kris was meant as a symbol that a man should not easily be angry, cruel, fierce, too aggressive, tyrannical and abusive.*[14]

Kris-makers did more than forge the weapon, they carried out the old rituals which could infuse the blade with mystical powers. For this reason, kris are considered almost alive because they may be vessels of spirits, either good or evil. Legends tell of kris that could move of their own volition and killed individuals at will. Some kris are rumored to stand upright when their real names are called by their masters. It was said that some kris helped prevent fires, death, agricultural failure, and many other problems. Likewise, they could also bring fortune, such as bountiful harvests. Many of these beliefs were derived from the possession of different kris by different people. For example, there is a type of kris in Java that was called *Beras Wutah*, which was believed to grant its possessor an easy life without famine. This kris was mainly assigned to government officers who were paid, in whole or in part, with foodstuffs such as rice.

There are several ways of testing whether a kris is lucky or not. A series of cuts on a leaf, based on blade width and other factors, could determine if a blade was good or bad. Also, if the owner slept with the blade under their pillow, the spirit of the kris would communicate with the owner via dream. If the owner had a bad dream, the blade was unlucky and had

to be discarded, whereas if the owner had a good dream the dagger would bring good fortune. However, just because a blade was bad for one person didn't mean it would be bad for another. Harmony between the weapon and its owner was critical.

Because some kris are considered sacred and believed to possess magical powers, specific rites needed to be completed to avoid calling down evil fates which is the reason warriors often made offerings to their kris at a shrine. There is also the belief that pointing a kris at someone means they will die soon, so silat practitioners precede their demonstrations by touching the points of the blades to the ground so as to neutralise this effect.

In the Barong dance of Bali there is a segment in which the villain Rangda magically enchants Airlangga's soldiers to commit suicide while another magician makes them invulnerable to sharp objects. In a trance state, the male dancers stab themselves in the chest with their own kris but remain unhurt.

18.6 Legends

Several folktales —linked to historical figures —mention legendary kris that possess supernatural power and extraordinary ability. Most of the magical kris are of Javanese origin, while the tales are derived from Javanese ancient manuscript, Babad (Javanese chronicle) and the Sejarah Melayu of Malaysia.

18.6.1 Kris Mpu Gandring

One of the most famous legends from Java comes from the Pararaton (Book of Kings). It describes a legendary bladesmith called Mpu Gandring or Empu Gandring and his impatient customer, Ken Arok, in the last days of the Kediri kingdom in the 13th century. The customer ordered a powerful kris to kill the mighty chieftain of Tumapel, Tunggul Ametung. Ken Arok eventually stabbed the old bladesmith to death because he kept delaying the scheduled completion of the kris. Dying, the bladesmith cursed the kris through prophesied that the unfinished or incomplete kris would kill seven men, including Ken Arok. Ken Arok used Mpu Gandring's cursed kris to assassinate Tunggul Ametung, cunningly put the blame to Kebo Ijo, and build a new kingdom of Singosari. The prophecy finally came true, with four men enlisted as the kris' first death roll, including Mpu Gandring himself, Tunggul Ametung, Kebo Ijo to whom Ken Arok lent the weapon, and finally Ken Arok himself. The unfinished kris then disappeared.*[19]*[20]

Another version of the tale describes that the kris passed to Ken Arok's stepson Anusapati which in turn killed his stepfather after recognized that his genuine father was killed by Ken Arok with the same kris. The bloody feud continued on and on until the reign of Kertanegara, the last king of Singosari Empire

18.6.2 Kris Taming Sari

Taming Sari ("flower shield") is one of the most well-known kris in Malay literature, said to be so skilfully crafted that anyone wielding it was unbeatable. In some versions of the legend, the weapon would grant its user physical invulnerability. The legend took place sometime during the fall of Majapahit Empire and the rise of the Malacca Sultanate in the 15th century. Tun Sri Lanang's book, the Sejarah Melayu, tells that it was made by a Javanese empu and first used by the champion of Majapahit, a pendekar named Taming Sari. He was defeated in a duel to the death by the Melakan admiral Hang Tuah, after which the king of Majapahit presented the weapon to the victor.*[13]

After being framed by a jealous official, Hang Tuah was ordered to be executed, but he managed to escape and go into hiding with the help of a minister who knew the truth. Hang Tuah's kris and title of Laksamana (admiral) were passed on to his comrade Hang Jebat. Furious that his best friend was unfairly put to death, Hang Jebat rebelled against the royalty and took over the palace. The desperate ruler of Melaka pardoned the minister so long as Hang Tuah could win him back the throne. Having trained under the same master since childhood the two friends were nearly equals but of the two, Tuah was the superior fighter. However, even after a long battle in the palace, neither could best the other because the Kris Taming Sari evened the odds. Only after taking his weapon back did Hang Tuah manage to stab Jebat, who died soon after.

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18.6.3 Kris Setan Kober

Another Javanese folk story tells of Arya Penangsang, the mighty viceroy (*adipati*) of Jipang who was killed by his own kris called Setan Kober ("devil of the grave"). It was forged by Empu Bayu Aji in the kingdom of Pajajaran, and had 13 luk on its blade. Near its completion when the empu tried to infuse the weapon with spiritual power, he was disturbed by a crying demon (djinn) from the graveyard. As a result, although powerful, the kris had a temperamental evil nature that caused the wielder to be overly ambitious and impatient.

The story took place in the 16th century, during the fall of Demak Sultanate that had replaced Majapahit as the ruler of Java. Setan Kober was safely kept by Sunan Kudus, one of the nine Islamic saints of Java. However Sunan Prawoto, son of Prince Trenggana and grandson of Raden Patah, stole it and used it to assassinate his uncle Raden Kikin by the river. Since then, Raden Kikin is also referred to as Sekar Seda Lepen (flower that fell by the river). Raden Trenggana rose as a sultan and later after his death, was replaced by Sunan Prawoto. Kikin's son, Arya Penangsang of Jipang with the help of his teacher, Sunan Kudus, took revenge by sending an assassin to kill Prawoto using the Setan Kober kris. Prawoto younger sister Ratu Kalinyamat seeks revenge on Penangsang, since Penangsang also murdered her husband. She urged her brother in-law, Hadiwijaya (Joko Tingkir) the ruler of Pajang, to kill Arya Penangsang. Hadiwijaya sent his adopted son and also his son in-law Sutawijaya, who would later become the first ruler of the Mataram dynasty.

During a battle, Sutawijaya stabbed Penangsang with Kyai Plered spear right in his gut. Arya Penangsang is bathing in his own blood, and his intestines were hanging from his open wounded stomach. However because Arya Penangsang is a mighty fighter that possess *aji* or *kesaktian* (spiritual power), he keep fighting with an open wounded stomach. He encircled his hanging intestines on his kris hilt, and continue to fight. When trying to attack his opponent, the reckless, fierce and impatience Panangsang pulled his Setan Kober off its sheath, foolishly cut his own intestines, and finally died.

The Javanese tradition of putting jasmine garlands around the kris hilt, especially on groom's kris during the wedding ceremony, is said to originate from this tale. It is to symbolyze that the groom should not be reckless, easily get angry, impatient and abusive like Arya Panangsang.*[14] To replace the intestine, the kris is coiled with a floral garland of jasmine chain that resemble intestine. The jasmine is to symbolize sacredeness, patience, grace, humility, kindness and benevolence, the qualities lack in Panangsang. However another source mentioned that actually Sutawijaya admired Penangsang's fighting spirits, still fighting although his intestine encircled around his kris. Impressed by Penangsang's deed, later he command his male descendants to follow his step, adorned the kris with "intestine" made from the chain of jasmine, as a symbol of bravery. The story of Arya Penangsang has inspired and performed as Javanese ketoprak drama.*[21]

18.7 Kris as a symbol

Throughout the archipelago, kris is a symbol of heroism,*[5] martial prowess, power and authority. As a cultural symbol, the meticulously decorated keris represent refinement, art and beauty, as the pride and prized possession for its owner;*[14] however, as a weapon it is associated with violence, death and bloodshed. Probably for this reason, although the kris is widespread in Javanese culture, it is not used to symbolise Javanese culture or royalty, as Javanese tradition promotes harmony and discourages direct confrontation (hence the absence of knives on Indonesian dinner tables). This is also why the Javanese traditionally wear the kris on their back, to symbolize violence as the last resort. However, in other parts of archipelago, from Sumatra to the Malay Peninsula and to Sulawesi, the kris is worn on the front or left side on the hip.

The kris is depicted on different emblems, coats and logos. For example, it can be seen in historical flag of Mataram Sultanate and former emblem of Siam to represent Malay minority in Southern Thailand. Kris is displayed in emblems of Riau, Riau Islands Province, Terengganu and Selangor. It also can be seen on an obverse copper-zinc-tin RM1 coin with a songket pattern in the background. The Malaya and British Borneo dollar 1 cent coin of 1962 also depicted a pair of crossed kris.

Since the independence of Malaysia, the kris has become something of a symbol of Malay nationalism. It is still regarded by some as a symbol of *ketuanan Melayu*, the doctrine of the Malay race as the dominant race at their homeland, and has been incorporated into the *Sang Saka Bangsa*, the official flag of the United Malays National Organisation.* [22]

Kris depicted in several emblems as a symbol:

- Flag of Mataram Sultanate
- Kris in UMNO flag
- Emblem of Riau
- Emblem of West Kalimantan
- Emblem of Jambi
- Emblem of Luwu Regency
- Old emblem of Siam
- Emblem of Selangor
- Emblem of Terengganu
- Flag of the Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) and the Bangsamoro Republik

18.8 See also

Kujang

18.9 References

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18.11 External links

- Malay World Edged Weapons
- Keris Indonesia
- Surprising find at Okinawa temple The Star online.
- The Kris in Java and Bali, Indonesia
- A Kris home(start)page for collectors and enthusiasts, lots of info, links and photos can be found there.



Kris worn by Yogyakarta Sultan's palace guard.

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A decorative kris with a figure of Semar as the handle. The blade has thirteen luk.



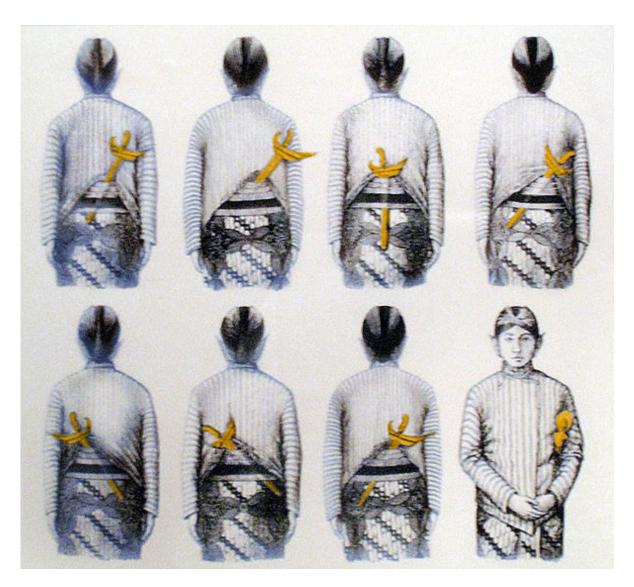
The shiny nickelous pattern (pamor) on dark iron background visible on kris' blade.



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Keris sheath of Ladrang Surakarta style



Various ways of wearing kris in Javanese culture.

18.11. EXTERNAL LINKS 83



Barong dance performance with kris-wielding dancers and Rangda in Bali



Kris display

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Hishammuddin Hussein's infamous waving of the kris as a symbol of Malay supremacy at the 2005 United Malays National Organisation Annual General Meeting

Sword Kladenets

Kladenets (Russian: меч-кладенец); also called *samosek* or *samosyok* (самосёк) the "self-swinging sword," *[1] is a fabulous magic sword in some Old Russian fairy tales. In English translations of Russian byliny and folklore, it may be rendered variously as "sword of steel," *[2] etc.

In the "Tale about the City of Babylon" the sword is called "Asp The Serpent" (Аспид-змей). In the "Tale about bogatyr Yeruslan Lazarevich" it is mentioned among the fire shield and fire spear.

19.1 Etymology

The word "kladenets" can putatively be linked to the Slavic word *klad* (клад) "treasure, hoard," although "a number of philologists doubt" that this word-stem figures in the derivation of "[this] Russian epithet of this sword." *[1]

George Vernadsky renders kladenets as "the hidden sword," which concurs with the common motif in the stories in which "this sword is usually represented as hidden under a rock, or under a sacred tree" to be discovered by the hero, such as the bogatyr.*[1] Although Vernadsky fails to elaborate, an alternative etymology connects the term kladenets to *klast*' (класть) "to lay or put," *[3] and his rendering lies in this camp.

One rational explanation derives the word from *uklad[ny]* (укладъ, укладный) "steel", hence *kladenets* is defined as meaning "made of steel" in the *Dictionary of Archaic and Obscure Words* published by the Russian Academy of Sciences.*[2]

Another explanation, credited to Alexander Veselovsky theorizes that kladenets may have originated as a corrupted pronunciation of "kgl'adencyja" (кгляденция) or "kgl'arencyja" (кгляденция), the good sword of Bova Korolevich (ru). The Old Russian tale of Bova was adapted from the medieval Italian romance of *Buovo d'Antona*, in which the original sword name is Chiarenza. This etymology has been endorsed by Max Vasmer's dictionary, under the entry that defines kladenets as a "magic sword in Russian tales".*[2]*[4]

Kladenets means "well" (for water) in the related Slavic language Bulgarian (Bulgarian: кладенец), potentially evocative of torrents of blood.

19.2 Modern fairy tales about Sword Kladenets

- "The tale about Ivan Tsarevich and the Sword *Kladenets*" (in Russian)
- "Ilya Muromets and the Sword Kladenets" (in Russian)



Dobrynya Nikitich. He rides next to Ilya Muromets in this 1898 painting by Victor Vasnetsov.

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Kusanagi

For other uses, see Kusanagi (disambiguation).

Kusanagi-no-Tsurugi (草薙の剣) is a legendary Japanese sword and one of three Imperial Regalia of Japan. It was originally called Ama-no-Murakumo-no-Tsurugi (天叢雲剣, "Sword of the Gathering Clouds of Heaven") but its name was later changed to the more popular Kusanagi-no-Tsurugi ("Grass Cutting Sword").

20.1 Legends

The history of the *Kusanagi-no-Tsurugi* extends into legend. According to *Kojiki*, the god *Susanoo* encountered a grieving family of *kunitsukami* ("gods of the land") headed by *Ashinazuchi* (足名椎) in Izumo province. When Susanoo inquired of Ashinazuchi, he told him that his family was being ravaged by the fearsome *Yamata-no-Orochi*, an eight-headed serpent of Koshi, who had consumed seven of the family's eight daughters and that the creature was coming for his final daughter, *Kushinada-hime* (奇稲田姫). Susanoo investigated the creature, and after an abortive encounter he returned with a plan to defeat it. In return, he asked for Kushinada-hime's hand in marriage, which was agreed. Transforming her temporarily into a comb (one interpreter reads this section as "using a comb he turns into [masquerades as] Kushinada-hime") to have her company during battle, he detailed his plan into steps.

He instructed the preparation of eight vats of *sake* (rice wine) to be put on individual platforms positioned behind a fence with eight gates. The monster took the bait and put one of its heads through each gate. With this distraction, Susanoo attacked and slew the beast (with his sword Worochi no Ara-masa*[1]). He chopped off each head and then proceeded to the tails. In the fourth tail, he discovered a great sword inside the body of the serpent which he called *Ame-no-Murakumo-no-Tsurugi*, which he presented to the goddess *Amaterasu* to settle an old grievance.

Generations later, in the reign of the Twelfth Emperor, *Keikō*, *Ame-no-Murakumo-no-Tsurugi* was given to the great warrior, *Yamato Takeru* as part of a pair of gifts given by his aunt, *Yamato-hime* the Shrine Maiden of Ise Shrine, to protect her nephew in times of peril.

These gifts came in handy when Yamato Takeru was lured onto an open grassland during a hunting expedition by a treacherous warlord. The lord had fiery arrows loosed to ignite the grass and trap Yamato Takeru in the field so that he would burn to death. He also killed the warrior's horse to prevent his escape. Desperately, Yamato Takeru used the *Ame-no-Murakumo-no-Tsurugi* to cut back the grass and remove fuel from the fire, but in doing so, he discovered that the sword enabled him to control the wind and cause it to move in the direction of his swing. Taking advantage of this magic, Yamato Takeru used his other gift, fire strikers, to enlarge the fire in the direction of the lord and his men, and he used the winds controlled by the sword to sweep the blaze toward them. In triumph, Yamato Takeru renamed the sword *Kusanagi-no-Tsurugi* (lit. "Grasscutter Sword") to commemorate his narrow escape and victory. Eventually, Yamato Takeru married and later fell in battle with a monster, after ignoring his wife's advice to take the sword with him.

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Atsuta Shrine in Nagoya dates back to c. 100 CE and houses the Kusanagi sword

20.2 Folklore

Although the sword is mentioned in the *Kojiki*, this book is a collection of Japanese myths and is not considered a historical document. The first reliable historical mention of the sword is in the *Nihonshoki*.*[2] Although the Nihonshoki also contains mythological stories that are not considered reliable history, it records some events that were contemporary or nearly contemporary to its writing, and these sections of the book are considered historical. In the *Nihonshoki*, the Kusanagi was removed from the Imperial palace in 688, and moved to Atsuta Shrine after the sword was blamed for causing Emperor Temmu to fall ill. Along with the jewel (Yasakani no Magatama) and the mirror (Yata no Kagami), it is one of the three Imperial Regalia of Japan, the sword representing the virtue of valor.

Kusanagi is allegedly kept at Atsuta Shrine but is not available for public display, and its existence cannot be confirmed. During the Edo period, a Shinto priest, claimed to have seen the sword. According to him, the sword was about 84 cm long, shaped like calamus, fashioned in a white metallic color, and well maintained. Another record claims that this priest died from the curse and the power of the sword, but this is most likely a story that was spread to emphasize its power. Recently, Japan's nationally run broadcasting station, NHK, went to Atsuta Shrine to videotape the sword but were turned away.

In *The Tale of the Heike*, a collection of oral stories transcribed in 1371, the sword is lost at sea after the defeat of the Heike clan in the Battle of Dan-no-ura, a naval battle that ended in the defeat of the Heike clan forces and the child Emperor Antoku at the hands of Minamoto no Yoshitsune. In the tale, upon hearing of the Navy's defeat, the Emperor's grandmother led the Emperor and his entourage to commit suicide by drowning in the waters of the strait, taking with her two of the three Imperial Regalia: the sacred jewel and the sword Kusanagi.*[3] The sacred mirror was recovered in extremis when one of the ladies-in-waiting was about to jump with it into the sea.*[4] Although the sacred jewel is said to

20.3. SEE ALSO 91

have been found in its casket floating on the waves, Kusanagi was lost forever. Although written about historical events, *The Tale of the Heike* is a collection of epic poetry passed down orally and written down nearly 200 years after the actual events, so its reliability as a historical document is questionable.

Another story*[5]*[6] holds that the sword was reportedly stolen again in the sixth century by a monk from Silla. However, his ship allegedly sank at sea, allowing the sword to wash ashore at Ise, where it was recovered by Shinto priests.

Due to the refusal of Shinto priests to show the sword, and the rather sketchy nature of its historical references, the current state of or even the existence at all of the sword as a historical artifact cannot be confirmed. The last appearance of the sword was in 1989 when Emperor Akihito ascended to the throne, the sword (including the jewel and the Emperor's two seals) were shrouded in packages.

20.3 See also

• Kusanagi in popular culture

20.4 References

- [1] Nihongi: Chronicles of Japan from the Earliest Times to A.D. 697, translated from the original Chinese and Japanese by William George Aston. Book I, part 1, page 56. Tuttle Publishing. Tra edition (July 2005). First edition published 1972. ISBN 978-0-8048-3674-6
- [2] *Nihongi: Chronicles of Japan from the Earliest Times to A.D. 697*, translated from the original kanbun by William George Aston. Book I, part 1, page 53. Tuttle Publishing. Tra edition (July 2005). First edition published 1972. ISBN 978-0-8048-3674-6 (this is the first time it is mentioned in the *Nihonshoki*—for more places see Index page 437).
- [3] The Tales of the Heike (12:9) Page 142. Columbia University Press, 2006.
- [4] The Tale of the Heike (12:10) Stanford University Press, 1988
- [5] The Tale of the Heike (12:12) Stanford University Press, 1988
- [6] Stanford University Press, 1988
- Naumann, Nelly. "The kusanagi sword" (PDF). In *Nenrin-Jahresringe: Festgabe für Hans A. Dettmer*. Ed. Klaus Müller. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 1992. [158]–170.

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Artist's impressions of the (unseen) Imperial Regalia of Japan

Sword of Attila

The **Sword of Attila**, also called the **Sword of Mars** or **Sword of God** (Hungarian: *Isten kardja*) was the legendary weapon carried by Attila the Hun. The Roman historian Jordanes, quoting the work of the historian Priscus, gave the story of its origin:

"When a certain shepherd beheld one heifer of his flock limping and could find no cause for this wound, he anxiously followed the trail of blood and at length came to a sword it had unwittingly trampled while nibbling the grass. He dug it up and took it straight to Attila. He rejoiced at this gift and, being ambitious, thought he had been appointed ruler of the whole world, and that through the sword of Mars supremacy in all wars was assured to him." *[1]

The use of "Mars" here is due to the *interpretatio romana* of Priscus, however, as the Huns would not have adopted the names of Roman deities; the more likely name used by the Huns would have been the more generic "sword of the war god;" (Historical sources of the Han Dynasty tell us that the Asian Huns or Xiongnu had one God, "Cheng Li", which in Altaic languages is pronounced "Tengri" *[2])Hungarian legends refer to it simply as "az Isten kardja," the sword of God. Priscus's description is also notable for describing how Attila used it as both a military weapon and a symbol of divine favor, which may have contributed to his reputation as "the Scourge of God," a divinely-appointed punisher. As historian Edward Gibbon elaborated, "the vigour with which Attila wielded the sword of Mars, convinced the world that it had been reserved alone for his invincible arm." *[3] In this way it became somewhat of a sceptre as well, representing Attila's right to rulership.

In the eleventh century, some five hundred years after the death of Attila, a sword claimed to have belonged to him surfaced, according to Lambert of Hersfeld,*[4] who attributed its provenance to the recently established Árpád kings of Hungary, who appropriated the cult of Attila and linked a claimed descent from him with their right to rule.*[5] The occasion was the unfortunate death of Leopold de Merspurg,*[6] a counsellor to the king, who fell from his horse and was impaled upon his own sword. The sword's history given by Johann Pistorius, was that it had been given by the queenmother*[7] of King Salomon to Otho, Duke of Bavaria, who had urged the emperor to reinstate Salomon's possessions. Otho had given it to Dedus, younger son of the margrave Dedus, after whose death it had come to the king,*[8] who had given it to Leopold, whose death—it was asserted by partisans of his rival Otho—had been a divine judgment.

There is no evidence to substantiate these medieval claims of its origin with Attila; the sword, in the Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna, as part of the Habsburg *Schatzkammer* in fact appears to be the work of ninth or tenth century Hungarian goldsmiths.*[9]

The real historical events of the discovery of this sword will probably remain unknown. More information about the origin of the sword is a legend about a locality of finding, see Miholjanec#Legend, because before this legend had been regarded, this sword was known as the sword of Charlemagne known as "Joyeuse".*[10]

21.1 See also

- List of historical swords
- Attila the Hun
- Hunnic Empire

21.2 References

- [1] Jordanes, The Origin and Deeds of the Goths ch. XXXV (e-text))
- [2] Encyclopedia, New World. "Tengri". New World Encylcopedia. Academic Publishing. Retrieved 2014-12-30.
- [3] The History of the Decline and Fall of The Roman Empire vol. 3 Ch. XXXIV Part 1
- [4] Lambertus, in Johann Pistorius, *Illustrium Veterum Scriptorum, qui rerum a Germanis...* (Frankfurt 1613), quoted in William Herbert, *Attila, King of the Huns* (London: Bohn) 1838:350f.
- [5] Patrick Howarth, Attila, King of the Huns: Man and Myth 1995:183f.
- [6] Merseburg perhaps.
- [7] She would have been Anastasia of Kiev, a daughter of Grand Duke Yaroslav I the Wise of Kiev.
- [8] William Herbert notes that this would have been Henry IV, Holy Roman Emperor.
- [9] Hermann Fillitz, *Die Schatzkammer in Wien: Symbole abendländischen Kaisertums*; ChicagoHungarians.com Illustration of the Vienna Kunsthistorisches Museum's ninth-tenth century "Sword of God"
- [10] European weapons and armour: from the Renaissance to the industrial revolution, page 151, R Ewart Oakeshott, North Hollywood, Calif.: Beinfeld Pub., 1980. ISBN 978-0-917714-27-6

21.3 External links

• ChicagoHungarians.com page on the Vienna Museum's "Attila Sword"

Taming Sari

Taming Sari [MALAY: *TAH-ming SAH-ree*] ("flower shield" or "beautiful shield" *[1]) is a famous kris in Malay folklore. It is believed to have been wielded by the legendary Melakan warrior Hang Tuah, and is fabled to grant physical invulnerability to its wielder.

22.1 Description

The Kris Taming Sari was said to have been made of 21 different types of metal. The whole of the *sampir* (upper wooden part) and *batang* (lower part of the wooden sheath),*[2] was covered in gold leaf. It is classified as a *keris gabus* (sharp*[1]) or *keris terapang* (having a cross-piece or sheath covered with gold*[1]).

22.2 Folklore

The *Sejarah Melayu* tells that the kris was made by a Javanese blacksmith (*pandai besi*)*[3] and wielded by the champion of Majapahit, a pendekar named Taming Sari from which the weapon derives its name.*[4] It was said to be so skillfully crafted that anyone wielding it was unbeatable. In some versions of the legend, the weapon was imbued with an enchantment that would make its user physically invulnerable. The Melakan admiral Hang Tuah eventually won it in a duel to the death after which the king of Majapahit presented the weapon to the victor.*[5] Later when Hang Tuah failed to bring back the princess from Gunung Ledang, he gave the kris to Tun Mamat to be returned to Sultan Mahmud Shah. Hang Tuah then disappeared and was never seen or heard of again. Another version of the legend has it that Hang Tuah threw the dagger into the river, saying that he would return when the kris re-appeared.

The Kris Taming Sari is said to have mystical powers such as hovering in the air during times of crisis or leaping out of its sheathe to fight on behalf of its wielder.

22.3 History

When Melaka was captured by Portuguese conquistadores in the 16th century, Sultan Mahmud retreated to Kampar in Sumatra, bringing all of Melaka's state regalia. He passed the weapon along with the other royal regalia to his son Muzaffar Shah who later became the ruler of Perak. It is still kept in the palace of his descendant Sultan Azlan Shah today as part of the state's regalia.* [6]

Before the Taming Sari became part of the Perak royalty's regalia, it is believed to have been a hereditary article of the family of the laksamana (admiral) who for generations, through succession, ruled as the territorial chief of Hilir Perak. It is believed that the last territorial chief who had the famed kris in his possession was Laksamana Mohd Amin Alang

Duakap. In 1876, he was arrested alongside many other rich aristocrats of his time for the alleged involvement in the murder of the first British Resident, James W.W. Birch. Together with Datuk Shahbandar Uda Kediti (the territorial chief of Kerian), Sultan Abdullah (the reigning Perak monarch of the time) and Menteri Paduka Ngah Ibrahim (the administrator of tin-rich Larut), Laksamana Mohd Amin was banished to the Seychelles.

22.4 References

- [1] Abridged Malay-English dictionary
- [2] "Keris Parts"
- [3] http://old.blades.free.fr/utilities/glossary.htm
- [4] Shellabear, W.G. (1909–1915). Hikayat Hang Tuah. Singapura: Sidang Methodist.
- [5] ThingsAsian.com, "Keris Is it merely a sword?".
- [6] "Mystical keris to go on display" . The Star (Malaysia). 7 April 2007.

Shamshir-e Zomorrodnegar

Shamshir-e Zomorrodnegār (Persian: شرم شير زامردنگار, 'the emerald-studded sword') is a sword in the Persian legend Amir Arsalan. The witch mother of a hideous horned demon called Fulad-zereh used a charm to make his body invulnerable to all weapons except this specific sword.

Shamshir-e Zomorrodnegār originally belonged to King Solomon, and was carefully guarded by Fulad-zereh, not only because it was a valuable weapon, and indeed the only weapon that could harm the demon, but also because wearing it was a charm against magic. A wound inflicted by this sword could only be treated by a special potion made from a number of ingredients, including Fulad-zereh's brains.

23.1 References

• Encyclopaedia Iranica

Totsuka-no-Tsurugi

The **Totsuka-no-Tsurugi** (十拳剣, lit. "Sword of Length Ten Times Its Handle"), **Ame-no-Habakiri** (天羽々斬, lit. "Snake-Slayer of Takamagahara"), **Ame-no-Ohabari** (天の尾羽張, lit. "sword of Takamagahara with blades on both sides of the tip"), or **Worochi-no-Aramasa** is the legendary sword of the Shinto god Susanoo. It was also the sword used by Izanagi to kill his offspring, Kagu-tsuchi.*[1]

24.1 History

It's never referred when it was forged or by whom; but the storm god (Susanoo) had it with him when he was banished from heaven. According to "Nihongi: Chronicles of Japan from the Earliest Times to A.d. 697" page 57, it is now held in the Kambe of Kibi.

24.2 The legend

After the sword's owner, Susanoo, was banished from heaven by the reason of killing one of Amaterasu's Attendants and destroying her rice fields, he descended to the Province of Izumo where he met Ashinazuchi, an elderly man who told him that the Yamata no Orochi ("Eight-Branched Serpent"), who had consumed seven of his eight daughters, was coming soon to eat the last one: Kushinada-hime.

Susanoo decided to help the family and investigated the creature, soon he begged Ashinazuchi for permission to marry Kushinada-hime, which was granted; having his plan ready, he transformed his wife into a comb so he could have her near in the battle. As the great snake came, it put each one of his eight heads through the gates the god built, searching for the daughter; as a bait the god had put big amounts of sake after each gate, the snake took the bait and got drunk; having an easy chance, Susanoo took the *Worochi no Ara-masa* and cut every head off the snake, proceeding with the tails, in the fourth one he found an exceptionally great sword, the *Kusanagi-no-Tsurugi*.

Having the sword in his hands he returned to the heaven offering the sword as a reconciliation gift to his sister Amaterasu.

24.3 The Kojiki version

So, having been expelled, [His-Swift-impetuous-Male-Augustness] descended to a place [called] Torikami at the head-waters of the River Hi in the Land of Idzumo. At this time some chopsticks came floating down the stream. So His-Swift-Impetuous-Male-Augustness, thinking that there must be people at the head-waters of the river, went up it in quest of them, when he came upon an old man and an old woman, --two of them,--who had a young girl between them, and were weeping. Then he deigned to ask: "Who are ye?" So the old man replied, saying: "I am an Earthly Deity, child of the Deity Great-Mountain-Possessor. I am

24.4. REFERENCES 99

called by the name of Foot-Stroking-Elder, my wife is called by the name of Hand-Stroking Elder, and my daughter is called by the name of Wondrous-Inada-Princess."

Again he asked: What is the cause of your crying?" [The old man answered] saying: "I had originally eight young girls as daughters. But the eight-forked serpent of Koshi has come every year and devoured [one], and it is now its time to come, wherefore we weep." Then he asked him: "What is its form like?" [The old man] answered, saying: "Its eyes are like akahagachi, it has one body with eight heads and eight tails. Moreover on its body grows moss, and also chamaecyparis and cryptomerias. Its length extends over eight valleys and eight hills, and if one look at its belly, it is all constantly bloody and inflamed." (What is called here akakagachi is the modern hohodzuki [winter-cherry]) Then His-Swift-Impetuous-Male-Augustness said to the old man: "If this be thy daughter, wilt thou offer her to me?" He replied, saying: "With reverence, but I know not thine august name." Then he replied, saying: "I am elder brother to the Heaven-Shining-Great-August-Deity. So I have now descended from Heaven."

Then the Deities Foot-Stroker-Elder and Hand-Stroking-Elder said: "If that be so, with reverence will we offer [her to thee]." So His-Swift-Impetuous-Male-Augustness, at once taking and changing the young girl into a multitudinous and close-toothed comb which he stuck into his august hair-bunch, said to the Deities Foot-Stroking-Elder and Hand-Stroking-Elder: "Do you distil some eight-fold refined liquor. Also make a fence round about, in that fence make eight gates, at each gate tie [together] eight platforms, on each platform put a liquor-vat, and into each vat pour the eight-fold refined liquor, and wait." So as they waited after having thus prepared everything in accordance with his bidding, the eight-forked serpent came truly as [the old man] had said, and immediately dipped a head into each vat, and drank the liquor. Thereupon it was intoxicated with drinking, and all [the heads] lay down and slept.

Then His-Swift-Impetuous-Male-Augustness drew the ten-grasp sabre that was augustly girded on him, and cut the serpent in pieces, so that the River Hi flowed on changed into a river of blood. So when he cut the middle tail, the edge of his august sword broke. Then, thinking it strange, he thrust into and split [the flesh] with the point of his august sword and looked, and there was a great sword [within]. So he took this great sword, and, thinking it a strange thing, he respectfully informed the Heaven-Shining-Great-August-Deity. This is the Herb-Quelling Great Sword. (tr. Chamberlain 1919:71-3)

24.4 References

[1] Encyclopedia of Shinto: Amenoohabari

Flaming sword (mythology)



Painting by Ferdinand Victor Eugène Delacroix of an angel (Camael) expelling Adam and Eve with a flaming sword

A **flaming sword** is a sword glowing with flame by some supernatural power. Flaming swords have existed in legend and myth for thousands of years.

According to the Bible, a cherub (or the archangel Uriel in some traditions) with a flaming sword was placed by God at

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the gates of Paradise after Adam and Eve were banished from it (Genesis 3:24).

Eastern Orthodox tradition says that after Jesus was crucified and resurrected, the flaming sword was removed from the Garden of Eden, making it possible for humanity to re-enter Paradise. *[1]

A flaming sword with immense destructive power appears in Norse mythology. It is said to be wielded by Surtr, the leader of the giants of Muspelheim.*[2]

25.1 See also

- Flame-bladed sword
- Flaming sword (effect)

25.2 References

- [1] Orthodox liturgy of the third Sunday of Lent
- [2] Faulkes (1995:9–10)

Cura Si Manjakini

Cura Si Manjakini (Malay: Pedang Cura Si Manjakini Jawi: ڤادڠ ڠ چورا سي ڄنڃاكيني) is a sword mentioned in the legends of the Malay Annals as originally possessed by Sang Sapurba, the legendary ancestor of Malay kings. For hundreds of years, the sword became a symbol of a rightful sovereignty and power in Malay culture. It was first inherited by Sang Nila Utama the founder of Singapura, later by Parameswara the first ruler of Melaka Sultanate, and then by Muzaffar Syah I the first Sultan of Perak. The sword is now a part of the Perak Sultanate's official regalia.*[1]

26.1 Etymology

The name "cura si manjakini" is said to originate from the Sanskrit word *churiga* (si) Mandakini means "the blade of the Mandakini".*[2] Other theory relates its name with "Curik Man Dakini" - *curik* being a Tamil-Sanskrit word that meant 'to cleave'; "man" deriving from the Sanskrit word mantera; and Dakini which was a *mambang kecil* that was said to devour the flesh and blood of man.

26.2 Legend

Tradition in the Malay Annals hold that the founder of the major line of rulers in the Malay world was a prince named Sang Sapurba who alleged to be the descendant of Alexander The Great with his Indian wife.*[3] Sang Sapurba, then known as Sri Nila Pahlawan first revealed himself with his younger brothers, Sri Krishna Pandita and Sri Nila Utama, upon the sacred hill of Seguntang in the hinterland of Palembang. The princes were later descended into the great plain watered by the Palembang river, where Sang Sapurba married Wan Sendari, the daughter of the local chief, Demang Lebar Daun, and was everywhere accepted as ruler of the land.*[3] At a later date Sang Sapurba is said to have crossed the great central range of Sumatra into the Minangkabau Highlands, where one of his warriors, Permasku Mambang, slew the great serpent Saktimuna using the legendary sword, and was made the king of a grateful people and the founder of the long line of Princes of Minangkabau.*[4]

26.3 References

- [1] The Straits Times 1939
- [2] Hill 1956, p. 18
- [3] Buyers, p. Genealogy of Malacca-Johor
- [4] A. Samad 1979, p. 28

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- The Straits Times (1939), Sword of Alexander in State Regalia (2 March), retrieved 2012-12-15

Caladbolg

Caladbolg ("hard cleft", cognate with Middle Welsh: Caledfwlch in medieval Welsh literature and Excalibur in the Matter of Britain; the name appears in the plural as a generic word for "great swords" in the 10th-century Irish translation of the classical tale The Destruction of Troy, Togail Troí*[1]*[2]), sometimes written Caladcholg ("hard blade"), is the sword of Fergus mac Róich from the Ulster Cycle of Irish mythology. Spelled Caladcholg, it is also associated with the more obscure Ulster hero Fergus mac Léti, suggesting a conflation of two legends. It was said to be a two-handed sword that made a circle like an arc of rainbow when swung, and to have the power to slice the tops off hills and slaughter an entire host.

During the events of the Táin Bó Cúailnge, Ailill mac Máta takes Caladbolg away from Fergus mac Róich when he discovers Fergus' affair with his wife Medb. He gives it back when the Ulaid rally against his armies. Fergus wreaks havoc against Ulster's forces with his blade, but Conall Cernach convinces him not to kill Conchobar mac Nessa. Fergus strikes the "Three Great" Strokes on three small hills instead, blasting off their tops.

27.1 References

- [1] Thurneysen, R. "Zur Keltischen Literatur und Grammatik", Zeitschrift für celtische Philologie, Volume 12, p. 281ff.
- [2] O'Rahilly, T. F., Early Irish history and mythology, Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies, 1957, p. 68

Excalibur

For other uses, see Excalibur (disambiguation).

Excalibur or **Caliburn** is the legendary sword of King Arthur, sometimes attributed with magical powers or associated with the rightful sovereignty of Great Britain. Sometimes Excalibur and the Sword in the Stone (the proof of Arthur's lineage) are said to be the same weapon, but in most versions they are considered separate. The sword was associated with the Arthurian legend very early. In Welsh, the sword is called **Caledfwlch**; in Cornish, the sword is called **Calesvol**; in Breton, the sword is called **Kaledvoulc'h**; in Latin, the sword is called **Caliburnus**.

28.1 Forms and etymologies

The name *Excalibur* ultimately comes from the ancestor of Welsh *Caledfwlch* (and Breton *Kaledvoulc'h*, Middle Cornish *Calesvol*) which is a compound of *caled* "hard" and *bwlch* "breach, cleft".*[1] Caledfwlch appears in several early Welsh works, including the poem *Preiddeu Annwfn* (though it is not directly named - but only alluded to - here) and the prose tale *Culhwch and Olwen*, a work associated with the *Mabinogion* and written perhaps around 1100. The name was later used in Welsh adaptations of foreign material such as the *Bruts*, which were based on Geoffrey. It is often considered to be related to the phonetically similar *Caladbolg*, a sword borne by several figures from Irish mythology, although a borrowing of *Caledfwlch* from Irish *Caladbolg* has been considered unlikely by Rachel Bromwich and D. Simon Evans. They suggest instead that both names "may have similarly arisen at a very early date as generic names for a sword"; this sword then became exclusively the property of Arthur in the British tradition.*[1]*[2] Most Celticists consider Geoffrey's *Caliburnus* to be derivative of a lost Old Welsh text in which *bwlch* had not yet been lenited to *fwlch*.*[3]*[4]*[1] In Old French sources this then became *Escalibor*, *Excalibor* and finally the familiar *Excalibur*.

Geoffrey of Monmouth, in his Historia Regum Britanniae, written c. 1136 AD, Latinised the name of Arthur's sword as *Caliburnus* (potentially influenced by the Medieval Latin spelling *calibs* of Classical Latin *chalybs*, from Greek *chályps* [$\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda v \psi$] "steel") and states that it was forged in the Isle of Avalon.

Geoffrey Gaimar, in his Old French *L'Estoire des Engles*, written between 1134-1140 AD, mentions Arthur and his sword: "this Constantine was the nephew of Arthur, who had the sword Caliburc" ("*Cil Costentin li niès Artur, Ki out l'espée Caliburc*").*[5]*[6]

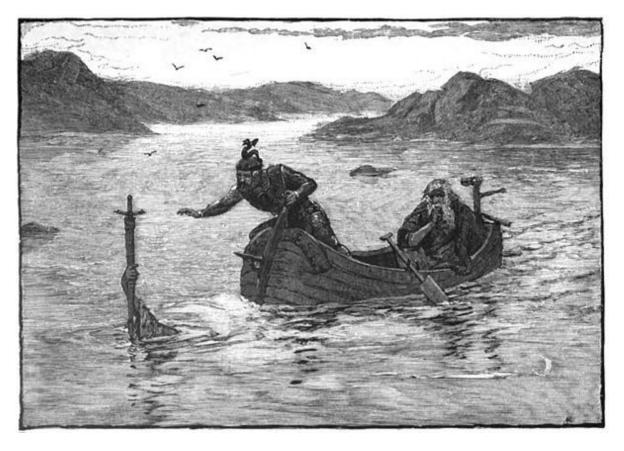
In Wace's c. 1150-1155 AD *Roman de Brut*, an Old French translation and versification of Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Historia Regum Britanniae*, the sword is called *Calabrum*, *Callibourc*, *Chalabrun*, and *Calabrun* (with alternate spellings such as *Chalabrum*, *Calibore*, *Callibore*, *Callibore*, *Callibore*, and *Escalibore*, found in various manuscripts of the *Brut*).*[7]

In Chrétien de Troyes' late 12th century Old French *Perceval*, Gawain carries the sword *Escalibor* and it is stated, "for at his belt hung Excalibor, the finest sword that there was, which sliced through iron as through wood." *[8] ("Qu'il avoit cainte Escalibor, la meillor espee qui fust, qu'ele trenche fer come fust." *[9]). This statement was probably picked up by the author of the *Estoire Merlin*, or Vulgate Merlin, where the author (who was fond of fanciful folk etymologies) asserts

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that Escalibor "is a Hebrew name which means in French 'cuts iron, steel, and wood"*[10] ("c'est non Ebrieu qui dist en franchois trenche fer & achier et fust"; note that the word for "steel" here, achier, also means "blade" or "sword" and comes from medieval Latin aciarium, a derivative of acies "sharp", so there is no direct connection with Latin chalybs in this etymology). It is from this fanciful etymological musing that Thomas Malory got the notion that Excalibur meant "cut steel" *[11] ("'the name of it,' said the lady, 'is Excalibur, that is as moche to say, as Cut stele.'").

28.2 Excalibur and the Sword in the Stone



The Lady of the Lake offering Arthur Excalibur, by Alfred Kappes (1880)

In Arthurian romance, a number of explanations are given for Arthur's possession of Excalibur. In Robert de Boron's *Merlin*, Arthur obtained the throne by pulling a sword from a stone. (The story of the Sword in the Stone has an analogue in some versions of the story of Sigurd (the Norse proto-Siegfried), whose father, Sigmund, draws the sword Gram out of the tree Barnstokkr where it is embedded by the Norse god Odin.) In this account, the act could not be performed except by "the true king," meaning the divinely appointed king or true heir of Uther Pendragon. This sword is thought by many to be the famous Excalibur, and its identity is made explicit in the later so-called *Vulgate Merlin Continuation*, part of the Lancelot-Grail cycle.*[12] The challenge of drawing a sword from a stone also appears in the Arthurian legends of Galahad, whose achievement of the task indicates that he is destined to find the Holy Grail.

However, in what is sometimes called the *Post-Vulgate Merlin*, Excalibur was given to Arthur by the Lady of the Lake sometime after he began to reign. She calls the sword "Excalibur, that is as to say as Cut-steel." In the Vulgate *Mort Artu*, Arthur orders Griflet to throw the sword into the enchanted lake. After two failed attempts (as he felt such a great sword should not be thrown away), he finally complies with the wounded king's request and a hand emerges from the lake to catch it, a tale which becomes attached to Bedivere instead in Malory and the English tradition.*[13] Malory records both versions of the legend in his *Le Morte d'Arthur*, naming both swords as Excalibur.*[14]*[15]

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In popular fiction, the two are often made as the same, such as in the film *Excalibur*. The novel itself does present the swords as separate. *The Sword in the Stone* is the title of a 1938 novel and an animated Disney film.

28.3 History

In Welsh legend, Arthur's sword is known as *Caledfwlch*. In *Culhwch and Olwen*, it is one of Arthur's most valuable possessions and is used by Arthur's warrior Llenlleawg the Irishman to kill the Irish king Diwrnach while stealing his magical cauldron (Irish mythology mentions a weapon *Caladbolg*, the sword of Fergus mac Roich. Caladbolg was also known for its incredible power and was carried by some of Ireland's greatest heroes. The name, which can also mean "hard cleft" in Irish, appears in the plural, *caladbulc*, as a generic term for "great swords" in *Togail Troi* ("The Destruction of Troy"), the 10th century Irish translation of the classical tale.* [16]*[17]).

Though not named as Caledfwlch, Arthur's sword is described vividly in *The Dream of Rhonabwy* one of the tales associated with the *Mabinogion*:

Then they heard Cadwr Earl of Cornwall being summoned, and saw him rise with Arthur's sword in his hand, with a design of two chimeras on the golden hilt; when the sword was unsheathed what was seen from the mouths of the two chimeras was like two flames of fire, so dreadful that it was not easy for anyone to look. At that the host settled and the commotion subsided, and the earl returned to his tent.

—From *The Mabinogion*, translated by Jeffrey Gantz.*[18]

In the late 15th/early 16th century Middle Cornish play Beunans Ke, Arthur's sword is called *Calesvol*, which is etymologically an exact Middle Cornish cognate of the Welsh *Caledfwlch*. It is unclear if the name was borrowed from the Welsh (if so, it must have been an early loan, for phonological reasons), or represents an early, pan-Brittonic traditional name for Arthur's sword.*[19]

Geoffrey of Monmouth's *History of the Kings of Britain* is the first non-Welsh source to speak of the sword. Geoffrey says the sword was forged in Avalon and Latinises the name "Caledfwlch" as *Caliburnus*. When his influential pseudohistory made it to Continental Europe, writers altered the name further until it finally took on the popular form *Excalibur* (various spellings in the medieval Arthurian Romance and Chronicle tradition include: Calabrun, Calabrum, Calibourne, Callibourc, Callibourch, Escaliborc, and Escalibor*[20]). The legend was expanded upon in the Vulgate Cycle, also known as the Lancelot-Grail Cycle, and in the Post-Vulgate Cycle which emerged in its wake. Both included the work known as the *Prose Merlin*, but the Post-Vulgate authors left out the *Merlin* Continuation from the earlier cycle, choosing to add an original account of Arthur's early days including a new origin for Excalibur.

In several early French works such as Chrétien de Troyes' *Perceval, the Story of the Grail* and the Vulgate *Lancelot Proper* section, Excalibur is used by Gawain, Arthur's nephew and one of his best knights. This is in contrast to later versions, where Excalibur belongs solely to the king.

28.4 Attributes

In many versions, Excalibur's blade was engraved with phrases on opposite sides: "Take me up" and "Cast me away" (or similar). In addition, when Excalibur was first drawn, in the first battle testing Arthur's sovereignty, its blade blinded his enemies. Thomas Malory*[21] writes: "thenne he drewe his swerd Excalibur, but it was so breyght in his enemyes eyen that it gaf light lyke thirty torchys."

Excalibur's scabbard was said to have powers of its own. Loss of blood from injuries, for example, would not kill the bearer. In some tellings, wounds received by one wearing the scabbard did not bleed at all. The scabbard is stolen by Morgan le Fay in revenge for the death of her beloved Accolon and thrown into a lake, never to be found again.

Nineteenth century poet Alfred, Lord Tennyson, described the sword in full Romantic detail in his poem "Morte d'Arthur", later rewritten as "The Passing of Arthur", one of the *Idylls of the King*:

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There drew he forth the brand Excalibur, And o' er him, drawing it, the winter moon, Brightening the skirts of a long cloud, ran forth And sparkled keen with frost against the hilt: For all the haft twinkled with diamond sparks, Myriads of topaz-lights, and jacinth-work Of subtlest jewellery.

28.5 Arthur's other weapons

Excalibur is by no means the only weapon associated with Arthur, nor the only sword. Welsh tradition also knew of a dagger named Carnwennan and a spear named Rhongomyniad that belonged to him. Carnwennan ("Little White-Hilt") first appears in *Culhwch and Olwen*, where it was used by Arthur to slice the Very Black Witch in half.*[22] *[1] Rhongomyniad ("spear" + "striker, slayer") is also first mentioned in *Culhwch*, although only in passing; it appears as simply *Ron* ("spear") in Geoffrey's *Historia*.*[3]*[1] In the *Alliterative Morte Arthure*, a Middle English poem, there is mention of Clarent, a sword of peace meant for knighting and ceremonies as opposed to battle, which was stolen and then used to kill Arthur by Mordred.*[23] The *Prose Lancelot* of the *Vulgate Cycle* mentions a sword called Seure, which belonged to the king but was used by Lancelot in one battle.*[24]

28.6 Similar weapons

There are other similar weapons described in other mythologies. In particular, Claíomh Solais, which is an Irish term meaning "Sword of Light", or "Shining Sword", which appears in a number of orally transmitted Irish folk-tales.

28.7 See also

- Excalibur (film)
- Durandal (legendary sword)
 - Roland
- Greysteil (a sinister knight killed with the mystic sword Egeking)
- Joyeuse (legendary sword wielded by Charlemagne)
 - Charlemagne
- Kusanagi (a Japanese sword, one of the three imperial Japanese regalia of the ruling family)
- Sharur (mystical mace wielded by Ninurta)
- The Singing Sword (fictional sword)
 - Prince Valiant (a fictional comic book / graphic novel character)
- Sword of Attila (legendary sword of Attila the Hun)
- Thuận Thiên (a legendary Vietnamese sword)
- Tizona (one of the legendary swords wielded by El Cid)
 - Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar (El Cid)
- Colada (the other legendary sword wielded by El Cid)
 - Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar (El Cid)

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28.8 Notes

[1] R. Bromwich and D. Simon Evans, *Culhwch and Olwen. An Edition and Study of the Oldest Arthurian Tale* (Cardiff: University of Wales Press, 1992), pp. 64-65

- [2] T. Green, Concepts of Arthur (Stroud: Tempus, 2007), p. 156
- [3] P. K. Ford, "On the Significance of some Arthurian Names in Welsh" in *Bulletin of the Board of Celtic Studies* 30 (1983), pp. 268-73 at p. 271;
- [4] James MacKillop, Dictionary of Celtic Mythology (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998), pp. 64-65, 174.
- [5] Hardy, T.D. and Martin, C. T. (eds./trans.), Gaimar, Geoffrey. *L'Estoire des Engles*, Eyre and Spottiswoode, London, 1889, p.
- [6] Wright, T. (ed.); Gaimar, Geoffrey. Gaimar, Havelok et Herward, Caxton Society, London, 1850, p. 2
- [7] De Lincy, Roux (ed.), Wace, Roman de Brut, v. II, Edouard Frère, Rouen, 1838, pp. 51, 88, 213, 215.
- [8] Bryant, Nigel (trans., ed.). Perceval: The Story of the Grail, DS Brewer, 2006, p. 69
- [9] Roach, William. Chrétien De Troyes: Le Roman De Perceval ou Le Conte Du Graal, Librairie Droz, 1959, p. 173
- [10] Loomis, R. S. Arthurian Tradition and Chrétien de Troyes, Columbia, 1949, p. 424
- [11] Vinaver, Eugene (ed.) The works of Sir Thomas Malory, Volume 3. Clarendon, 1990, p. 1301
- [12] Micha, Alexandre (ed.). Merlin: roman du XIIIe siècle (Geneva: Droz, 1979)
- [13] Lacy, N. J. (trans.) Lancelot-Grail: The Old French Arthurian Vulgate and Post-Vulgate in Translation, 5 vols (New York: Garland, 1992-6)
- [14] Malory, Sir Thomas. Le Morte D'Arthur, University of Michigan Humanities Text Initiative, 1997. p. 7.
- [15] Malory, p. 46.
- [16] Thurneysen, R. "Zur Keltischen Literatur und Grammatik", Zeitschrift für celtische Philologie, Volume 12, p. 281ff.
- [17] O'Rahilly, T. F. Early Irish history and mythology, Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies, 1957, p. 68
- [18] Gantz, The Mabinogion, p. 184.
- [19] Koch, John. Celtic Culture: A Historical Encyclopedia, Volume 1, ABC-CLIO, 2006, p. 329.
- [20] Zimmer, Heinrich. "Bretonische Elemente in der Arthursage des Gottfried von Monmouth", Zeitschrift für französische Sprache und Literatur, Volume 12, E. Franck's, 1890, p. 236.
- [21] Book I, 19, from *The Works of Sir Thomas Malory*, Ed. Vinaver, Eugène, 3rd ed. Field, Rev. P. J. C. (1990). 3 vol. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 0-19-812344-2, ISBN 0-19-812345-0, ISBN 0-19-812346-9. (This is taken from the Winchester Manuscript).
- [22] T. Jones and G. Jones, The Mabinogion (London: Dent, 1949), p. 136
- [23] Alliterative Morte Arthure, TEAMS, retrieved 26-02-2007
- [24] Warren, Michelle. History On The Edge: Excalibur and the Borders of Britain, 1100-1300 (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press) p. 212

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- Micha, Alexandre. Merlin: roman du XIIIe siècle (Geneva: Droz, 1979)

28.10 External links

• The Camelot Project at the University of Rochester: Excalibur and The Sword In The Stone

28.10. EXTERNAL LINKS



Morgan le Fay Casts Away the Scabbard, by Henry Justice Ford (1902)

Claíomh Solais

This article is about the sword of folklore. For the newspaper, see An Claidheamh Soluis. For other uses, see Claíomh Solais (disambiguation).

Claíomh Solais (reformed spelling), Claidheamh Soluis (unreformed Mod. Ir.)*[1] (IPA:Irish pronunciation: [/kli:v 'sɔlɪʃ/]; an cloidheamh solais (variant spelling*[2]) pronunc. roughly /kleeve-solish/), is an Irish term meaning "Sword of Light", or "Shining Sword", which appears in a number of orally transmitted Irish folk-tales esp. of the "adventure in the otherworld (giant's land)" variety. It also appears in numerous Scottish Gaelic folk-tales.*[3]

Recent popularized notions equate this weapon with swords from Irish mythology (Cúchulainn's sword Cruaidín,*[4] or Nuada's sword, one of the Four Treasures of the Tuatha Dé Danann), but this is not founded on solid literary evidence. A paragraph at bottom will be devoted to the discussion of this comingling, but the present article centers on the survey of the sword of light as they actually occur in stories passed down in the olden days.

29.1 Overview

The folk tales featuring the *claidheamh soluis* typically compels the hero to perform (three) sets of tasks, aided by helpers, who may be a servant woman, "helpful animal companions", or some other supernatural being. The majority of are also bridal quests (or involve the winning of husbands in e.g., Maol a Chliobain*[5]).

The adversary is usually described as a giant (*guragach* or *fermór*), who oftentimes cannot be defeated except by some secret means. Thus the hero or helper may resort to the sword of light as the only effective weapon against this enemy. But often the sword is not enough, and the supernatural enemy has to be attacked on a single vulnerable spot on his body. The weak spot, moreover, may be an external soul concealed somewhere in the world at large (inside animals, etc.), and in the case of "The Young King of Esaidh Ruadh", *[6] this soul is encased within a nested series of animals.

The crucial secret to the hero's success is typically revealed by a woman, i.e., his would-be bride or the damsel in distress (the woman servant held captive by giants), etc. And even when the secret's revealant is an animal, she may in fact be a human transformed into beast (e.g. the great grey cat in "The Widow and her Daughters" *[7]).

The woman as the possessor of the secret seems to be an element of preeminent importance, suggested by the fact that one tale bears the title "The Shining Sword and the Knowledge of the Cause of the One Story about Women" (and Kennedy's tale *Fios Fath an aon Sceil* or 'perfect narrative of the unique story'*[8] may be a corruption of this). A parallel to this is the question "What is it that women most desire?" posed in the Arthurian tale of The Wedding of Sir Gawain and Dame Ragnelle, which may be a basis for further comparative analysis.

29.2 Irish Folktales

See under #Primary sources for bibliography of the compilations.

29.2. IRISH FOLKTALES 113



Definitive 6-pence stamp of Sword of Light, Ireland, 1922-3. Arched caption reads "An Claideam Soluis"

- "The Story of the Sculloge's son from Muskerry (Sceal Vhic Scoloige)" (Kennedy 1866, pp. 255-)
- "Fios Fath an aon Sceil" (perfect narrative of the unique story) (Kennedy 1866, pp. 266-)
- \bullet "The Weaver's Son and the Giant of the White Hill" , (Curtin 1890, pp. 64–77). Here the "sword of sharpness" .*[9]
- "The Thirteenth Son of the King of Erin", (Curtin 1890, pp. 157–174)

- "Morraha; Brian More, son of the high-king of Erin, from the Well of Enchantments of Binn Edin" (Larminie 1893, pp. 10–30)
- "Simon and Margaret" (Larminie 1893, pp. 130-138)
- "Beauty of the World" (Larminie 1893, pp. 155–167)
- "The King who had Twelve Sons" (Larminie 1893, pp. 196–210)
- "Smallhead and the King's Sons" (Jacobs 1894, pp. 80–96 (No.XXXIX); Curtin, contrib. "Hero Tales of Ireland" (New York Sun))
- "The Shining Sword and the Knowledge of the Cause of the One Story about Women" (O'Faharta 1897, pp. 477–92 (ZCP 1))
- "The Snow, Crow, and the Blood" (MacManus 1900, pp. 151–174). This tale closely parallels another collected by Hyde entitled "Mac Rig Eireann (The King of Ireland's Son)",*[10] but in Hyde's version the hero's party obtains "the sword of the three edges" (cloideam na tri faobar).
- an untitled tale of Finn's three sons by the Queen of Italy collected at Glenties in Donegal, (Andrews 1919, pp. 91-)
- "An Claidheamh Soluis" (Ó Ceocháin 1927 (Béaloideas I, i (1927), pp. 277–282))

29.3 Scottish Gaelic Folktales

The publication of tales from the Highlands (Campbell 1860, *Popular Tales of the West Highlands*) predate the Irish tales becoming available in print. The magic sword sometimes appearing under variant names such as the "White Glave of Light" (Scottish Gaelic: *an claidheamh geal soluis*).

- "The Young King of Esaidh Ruadh" (Campbell 1860, vol. I, pp.1-, No. 1;)
- "Widow's Son" (Campbell 1860, vol. I, pp.47-, No.2, 2nd variant;)
- "Tale of Conal Crovi" (Campbell 1860, vol. I, pp.125-, No.6;)
- "Tale of Connal" (Campbell 1860, vol. I, p.143-, No.7;)
- "Maol a Chliobain" (Campbell 1860, vol. I, pp.251-, No.17;)
- "The Widow and her Daughters" (Campbell 1860, vol. II, pp.265-, No.41, 2nd variant;)
- "Mac Iain Direach" (Campbell 1860, vol. II, pp.328-, No.46;)
- "An Sionnach, the Fox" (Campbell 1860, vol. II, pp.353-, No.46, 4th variant;)
- "The History of Kitty Ill-Pretts" (Bruford & MacDonald 1994, pp. 185–190, No. 21)

There is also a Donegal tale ("Hung up Naked Man", summ. in English by Loomis; "Éamonn Ua Ciórrthais(?)" ed. Quiggin,) strikingly similar to the "Young King of Esaidh Ruadh" above, even though it does not mention a sword of light.*[11]*[12]

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29.4 Popular culture

29.4.1 Commingling with mythological swords

The assertion that Claidheamh Soluis is "a symbol of Ireland attributed in oral tradition to Cúchulainn" (Mackillop*[13]) does not seem very representative, since in the body of folktales that mention the sword of light (listed above), few (if any) names Cuchulainn as the protagonist. And T. F. O'Rahilly only went as far as to suggests that the "sword of light" in folk tales was a vestige of Cúchulainn's Cruaidín Catutchenn.*[14] This sword (aka "Socht's sword") is said to have "shone at night like a candle" according to a version of Echtrae Cormaic ("Adventures of Cormac mac Airt").*[15]

In some circles, the Claidheamh Soluis has been asserted to be the sword of Nuada Airgetlám, one of The Four Treasures of the Tuatha Dé Danann. This notion has become popular in Japan, where this information was disseminated by the fantasy related mythology reference.*[16] It has been reported that artist Jim Fitzpatrick had been the one who identified Nuada's sword as the Claidheamh Soluis in his novels (*Book of Conquests* (1978), *The Silver Arm* (1981), and *Érinsaga* (1985)).

There is slim literary grounds for calling Nuada Airgedlamh's sword the Claidheamh Soluis. One scrap of text that might encourage the notion is found in the *Scéla Conchobuir meic Nessa*, where one of the eighteen shields (or swords*[17]) of Ulstermen is called "the Candle of Nuada" (Irish: *Chaindel Nuadat*, Kinsella tr. "Nuadu's Cainnel—a bright torch").*[18]*[19] This Nuada here is presumably an Ulster warrior but difficult to identify so that one is tempted to speculate the deity is meant.

29.4.2 Connection to other swords

Unsurprisingly, some have seen parallels with this to Excalibur, due to some of the descriptions regarding how it shone. When Excalibur was first drawn, in the first battle testing King Arthur's sovereignty, its blade blinded his enemies. Thomas Malory*[20] writes: "thenne he drewe his swerd Excalibur, but it was so breyght in his enemyes eyen that it gaf light lyke thirty torchys."

29.5 Gallery

29.6 See also

- Lug's Spear
- Lúin of Celtchar

29.7 Citations

- [1] Mackillop 1998
- [2] O'Rahilly 1946, EIHM, p.68; Kennedy
- [3] Campbell 1860, I, 24, "The sword of light is common in Gaelic stories;.." etc.
- [4] "the Divine Hero overcomes his father the Otherworld-god with that god's own weapon, the thunderolt, known variously in story-telling by names such as the *Gaí Bulga* (Cú Chulainn's weapon), the *Caladbolg* (Arthur's Escalibur), or the *Claidheamh Soluis* of our halfpenny postage-stamps." G.M., review of O'Rahilly 1946(EIHM), in: *Studies, an Irish Quarterly Review*; Vol. 35, No. 139 (Sep. 1946), pp. 420-422 JSTOR p.421
- [5] Campbel 1860, vol. I, 251 (#17)
- [6] Campbell 1860, vol. 1, pp.1-, (No.1)

- [7] Campbell 1860, vol. II,265 (NO.41)
- [8] Kennedy 1866, pp. 266-
- [9] Also see notice in A.C.L. Brown, "Bleeding Lance", PMLA 25, p. 20
- [10] in Hyde, Douglas (1890), *Beside the Fire* (Internet Archive), London: David Nutt, pp.18-47. Taken down from Seágan O Cuineagáin (John Cunningham), village of Baile-an-phuill (Ballinphil), Co. Roscommon, half mile from Mayo. This tale is also closely summarized and analyzed for folk motives by Mackillop 1998, under "King of Ireland's Son"
- [11] Loomis 1997, pp. 18-
- [12] The Irish text is Edmund Crosby Quiggin, Dialect of Donegal (1906), 201 wikisource
- [13] Mackillop 1998, Dict. Celtic Mythol.
- [14] O'Rahilly 1946, EIHM, p. 68, "Cúchulainn possessed not only the spear of Bulga, but also a sword, known as *in Cruaidín Catutchenn*, which shone at night like a torch. In folk tales the lightning-sword has survived as "the sword of light" (*an cloidheamh solais*), possessed by a giant and won from him by a hero."
- [15] p. 218, in: Stokes, Whitley, ed. tr., Scél na Fír Flatha, Echtra Chormaic i Tír Tairngiri ocus Cert Claidib Chormaic (the Irish Ordeals, Cormac's Adventure in the Land of Promise, and the Decision as to Cormac's Sword), in Irische Texte III, 1 (Leipzig 1891) pp. 183–229.
- [16] Takebe & Kaiheitai 1990, p. 58 and derivative literature. According Takebe's reference book, Nuadha wore a shining sword called the Claimh Solais (phonetisized Klau-Solas)—fiery sword, sword of light. The Claimh Solais was a magic sword carved with spells (runes), and reputedly an Undefeatable Sword such that once unsheathed, no one could escape its blows. And also, it was one of the Four Treasures of Erin brought from the mystical Isle of Findias in the North." Japanese: 「クラウ・ソラス(Claimh Solais 炎の剣、光の剣)」と呼ばれる輝く剣を身につけていました。クラウ・ソラスは呪文が刻んである魔剣で、一度鞘から抜かれたら、その一撃から逃れられる者はいない不敗の剣であるとも伝えられています。そしてまた、北方にある神秘島のフィンジアス(Findias)市からもたらされた、エリン四至宝のうちの一つでした。 (p.58)
- [17] Harry Mountain's Celtic Encyclopedia calls Cormac's Croda a sword, etc., Kinsella calls Leochain the hacking sword)
- [18] Tr. ed. Scéla Conchobair maic Nessa "The Tidings of Conchobar son of Ness" in Ériu 4 (1910), 18–33. (books.google)
- [19] Kinsella, "How Conchobar was begotten, and how he took the kingship of Ulster" in *The Táin* (1969). Kinsella uses the tale from the Book of Leinster here (rather than the 1st recension of TBC). See his endnotes.
- [20] Book I, 19, from *The Works of Sir Thomas Malory*, Ed. Vinaver, Eugène, 3rd ed. Field, Rev. P. J. C. (1990). 3 vol. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 0-19-812344-2, ISBN 0-19-812345-0, ISBN 0-19-812346-9. (This is taken from the Winchester Manuscript).

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29.8.2 Primary sources

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- O'Rahilly, T. F. (1946), Early Irish History and Mythology (snippet), Dublin: Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies

29.8.5 Popularized versions

• MacManus, Seumas (1900), *Donegal Fairy Stories*, New York: McClure, Phillips & Co, pp. 157–174 – via Google Books

29.9 External links

- Celtic Objects
- Encyclopaedia of the Celts

Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain

The **Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain** (Welsh: *Tri Thlws ar Ddeg Ynys Prydain*) are a series of items in late medieval Welsh tradition. Lists of the items appear in texts dating to the 15th and 16th centuries.*[2] Most of the items are placed in the *Hen Ogledd* or "Old North", the Brittonic-speaking parts of what is now southern Scotland and Northern England; some early manuscripts refer to the whole list specifically as treasures "that were in the North".*[2] The number of treasures is always given as thirteen, but some later versions list different items, replacing or combining entries to maintain the number.*[2] Later versions also supplement the plain list with explanatory comments about each treasure.

30.1 List

The various treasures (*tlws*) include vessels or utensils for food and drink (hamper, cauldron, crock and dish, horn and knife), objects relating to weaponry (sword, whetstone) and to transport (halter, chariot), clothing (coat, mantle) and still other items (stone and ring, chessboard). The standard version of the list includes the following treasures:

- 1. White-Hilt, the Sword of Rhydderch Hael (*Dyrnwyn*, *gleddyf Rhydderch Hael*): "if a well-born man drew it himself, it burst into flame from its hilt to its tip. And everyone who used to ask for it would receive; but because of this peculiarity everyone used to reject it. And therefore he was called Rhydderch the Generous."
- 2. The Hamper of Gwyddno Garanhir (*Mwys Gwyddno Garanir*): food for one man would be put in it, and when it was opened, food for a hundred men would be found in it.
- 3. The Horn of Brân Galed from the North (*Corn Brân Galed o'r Gogledd*): whatever drink might be wished for was found in it.
- 4. The Chariot of Morgan Mwynfawr (*Car Morgan Mwynfawr*): if a man went in it, he might wish to be wherever he would, and he would be there quickly.
- 5. The Halter of Clydno Eiddyn (*Cebystr Clydno Eiddin*), which was fixed to a staple at the foot of his bed: whatever horse he might wish for, he would find in the halter.
- 6. The Knife of Llawfrodedd Farchog (Cyllell Llawfrodedd Farchog), which would serve for twenty-four men to eat at table.
- 7. The Cauldron of Dyrnwch the Giant (*Pair Dyrnwch Gawr*): if meat for a coward were put in it to boil, it would never boil; but if meat for a brave man were put in it, it would boil quickly (and thus the brave could be distinguished from the cowardly).

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8. The Whetstone of Tudwal Tudglyd (*Hogalen Tudwal Tudclyd*): if a brave man sharpened his sword on the whetstone, then the sword would certainly kill any man from whom it drew blood. If a cowardly man used the whetstone, though, his sword would refuse to draw blood at all.

- 9. The Coat of Padarn Beisrudd (*Pais Badarn Beisrydd*): if a well-born man put it on, it would be the right size for him; if a churl, it would not go upon him.
- 10-11. The Crock and the Dish of Rhygenydd the Cleric (*Gren a desgyl Rhygenydd Ysgolhaig*): whatever food might be wished for in them, it would be found.
- 12. The Chessboard of Gwenddoleu ap Ceidio (*Gwyddbwyll Gwenddoleu ap Ceidio*): if the pieces were set, they would play by themselves. The board was of gold, and the men of silver.
- 13 The Mantle of Arthur in Cornwall (*Llen Arthyr yng Nghernyw*): whoever was under it could not be seen, and he could see everyone.

14/15. Later lists also include two additional treasures, the Mantle of Tegau Eurfon, and Eluned's Stone and Ring. Where these appear, one of the other treasures is dropped and the Crock and the Dish of Rhygenydd the Cleric are counted as one item.* [2] The new items come from literary, rather than traditional, material; the Mantle comes from a version of the Caradoc story, while Eluned's stone and ring come from the prose tale *Owain, or the Lady of the Fountain*.

30.2 Description

Some of the magical objects listed can be shown to have earlier origins in Welsh narrative tradition. Items 1, 2 and 7, for instance, are also described in the Middle Welsh tale *Culhwch ac Olwen* (tentatively dated to *c*. 1100), in which Ysbaddaden the Giant gives King Arthur's cousin Culhwch a list of impossible tasks (*anoetheu*) which he has to complete in order to win the hand of Olwen, the giant's daughter.

30.2.1 *Dyrnwyn*, the Sword of Rhydderch Hael

The *Dyrnwyn* ("White-Hilt") is said to be a powerful sword belonging to Rhydderch Hael, *[3] one of the Three Generous Men of Britain mentioned in the Welsh Triads. When drawn by a worthy or well-born man, the entire blade would blaze with fire. Rhydderch was never reluctant to hand the weapon to anyone, hence his nickname *Hael* "the Generous", but the recipients, as soon as they had learned of its peculiar properties, always rejected the sword.

30.2.2 The Hamper of Gwyddno Garanhir

It is told that Gwyddno Garanhir ("Long-shank") possessed a hamper (mwys) which would multiply food: if one was to put food for one man in the basket and open it again, the food was found to be increased a hundredfold.

30.2.3 The Horn of Brân Galed

The Horn of Brân Galed ("the Stingy" or "the Niggard") from the North is said to have possessed the magical property of ensuring that "whatever drink might be wished for was found in it".*[4] Marginal notes to the text in Peniarth MS 147 (c. 1566) elaborate on this brief entry by saying that Myrddin had approached the kings and lords of Britain to request their treasures. They consented on the condition that he obtained the horn of Brân Galed, supposing that the task would be impossible to fulfill (whether owing to Brân's reputation for being close-fisted or for some other reason). However, Myrddin somehow succeeded to obtain the drinking horn and so received the other treasures as well. He took his hoard

to the "Glass House" ($T\hat{y}$ Gwydr), where it would remain forever. Tracing the prehistory of the horn to the Greek mythological past, the same notes tell that Hercules had removed the horn from the head of the centaur he had slain, whose wife then killed the hero in bloody revenge.*[5]

The discrepancy between Brân's nickname ("the Stingy") and the special property of the enchanted horn appears to be explained by the Welsh poet Guto'r Glyn, who lived in the mid-15th century and was therefore contemporary with the earliest attestations of the *Tri Thlws ar Ddleg*. He relates that Brân Galed was a northern nobleman, whom Taliesin transformed into a man superior to the Tri Hael, i.e. the three most generous men in Britain according to one of the Welsh Triads.*[5]*[6] Later bards to allude to the treasure include Tudur Aled and Iorwerth Fynglwyd.*[7]

The identity of Brân Galed (not to be confused with Brân the Blessed) is uncertain. His northern background, which is usually described in general terms, is specified in one place elsewhere. A 16th-century note written by the scribe Gruffudd Hiraethog (died 1564) identifies Brân as the son of one *Emellyr*, which appears to refer to the Brân son of Ymellyrn who is depicted in the Llywarch Hen cycle of poems as an opponent of the kings of Rheged.*[8] The latter has also been equated with the Brân fighting at Cynwyd (northern Wales) in the poem *Gwarchan Tudfwlch*, possibly against Owain of Rheged.*[9]

30.2.4 The Chariot of Morgan Mwynfawr

The chariot belonging to Morgan Mwynfawr ("the Wealthy") is described as a magical vehicle which would quickly reach whatever destination one might wish to go to.

30.2.5 The Halter of Clydno Eiddyn

Belonged to Clydno Eiddyn (Cebystr Clydno Eiddin). It was fixed to a staple at the foot of his bed. Whatever horse he might wish for, he would find in the halter.

30.2.6 The Knife of Llawfrodedd the Horseman

Llawfrodedd Farchog (from *marchog* "the Horseman"), or *Barfawc* "the Bearded" in other manuscripts, is said to have owned a knife which would serve for a company of 24 men at the dinner table.

30.2.7 The Cauldron of Dyrnwch the Giant

The cauldron (pair) of Dyrnwch the Giant is said to discriminate between cowards and brave men: whereas it would not boil meat for a coward, it would boil quickly if that meat belonged to a brave man.*[10] The description probably goes back to a story similar to that found in the Middle Welsh tale Culhwch ac Olwen, in which the cauldron of Diwrnach the Irishman, steward (maer) to Odgar son of Aedd, King of Ireland, is among the anoetheu which Culhwch is required to obtain for the wedding banquet. King Arthur requests the cauldron from King Odgar, but Diwrnach refuses to give up his prized possession. Arthur goes to visit Diwrnach in Ireland, accompanied by a small party, and is received at his house, but when Diwrnach refuses to answer Arthur's request a second time, Bedwyr (Arthur's champion) seizes the cauldron and entrusts it to one of Arthur's servants, who is to carry the load on his back. In a single sweep with the sword called Caledfwlch, Llenlleawg the Irishman kills off Diwrnach and all his men. A confrontation with Irish forces ensues, but Arthur and his men fight them off. They board their ship Prydwen and, taking with them the cauldron loaded with the spoils of war, return to Britain.*[11]

In *Culhwch*, Diwrnach's cauldron is not attributed with any special power. However, the earlier poem *Preiddeu Annwfn* (*The Spoils of Annwfn*), refers to an adventure by Arthur and his men to obtain a cauldron with magical properties equivalent to the one in the lists of the thirteen treasures. In this poem the owner of the cauldron is not an Irish lord but the king of Annwn, the Welsh Otherworld, suggesting that the version of the story in *Culhwch* is a later attempt to euhemerize an older tale.*[12]*[13]

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Diwrnach's name, which derives from Irish *Diugurach* and exhibits no literary provenance, may have been selected by the author of *Culhwch ac Olwen* to emphasize the Irish setting of his story.*[13] Although Dyrnwch is not himself described as an Irishman, it is probable that his name goes back to *Diwrnach*.*[13] The extant manuscripts of *Tri Thlws ar Ddeg* also present such variant spellings as *Dyrnog* and *Tyrnog*, without the Irish-sounding ending, but on balance, these are best explained as Welsh approximations of a foreign name.*[13]

30.2.8 The Whetstone of Tudwal Tudglyd

Sharpens the blade of a fine warrior. It shall draw blood from any enemy of its user if its user be brave; if its user shall be cowardly, than the blade shall not be sharpened and draw no blood whatsoever.

30.2.9 The Coat of Padarn Beisrudd

Perfectly fits any brave man; will not fit cowards.

30.2.10 The Crock and Dish of Rhygenydd Ysgolhaig

Belonged to Rhygenydd the Cleric. Whatever food might be wished for in them, it would be found on them.

30.2.11 Chessboard of Gwenddoleu ap Ceidio

Rather large chess board with pieces of silver and crystal and the board made of gold. The pieces only play by themselves if all the pieces are set up correctly.

30.2.12 The Mantle of Arthur in Cornwall

King Arthur's *llen* or mantle is said to make anyone underneath it invisible, though able to see out. This item is known from two other sources, the prose tales *Culhwch and Olwen* (c. 1100) and *The Dream of Rhonabwy* (early 13th century). A very similar mantle also appears in the Second Branch of the Mabinogi, in which it is used by Caswallawn to assassinate the seven stewards left behind by Bran the Blessed and usurp the throne.*[14]

In *Culhwch* Arthur's mantle is included in the list of the only things Arthur will not give to the protagonist Culhwch, but it is not named specifically or otherwise described. However, the names of several of the other items contain the element *gwyn*, meaning "white; sacred; blessed", suggesting otherworldly connections for the whole list.*[15] In *The Dream of Rhonabwy*, the mantle is specifically named Gwenn, and has properties analogous to those given in the lists of the Thirteen Treasures, though here it is those on top of the mantle who are made invisible.*[16]

30.2.13 The Mantle of Tegau Gold-Breast

Tegau Gold-Breast (Tegau Eurfron, wife of Caradoc) was a Welsh Heroine. Her mantle would not serve for any woman who had violated her marriage or her virginity. It would reach to the ground when worn by a faithful woman but would only hang down to the lap of an unfaithful wife.

30.2.14 The Stone and Ring of Eluned the Fortunate

One might describe it as a cloak of invisibility. It's said that Merlin once possessed this item for a while.

30.3 See also

• Four Treasures, The four hallows of Ireland

30.4 Notes

- [1] Bromwich, Trioedd Ynys Prydein (1978): 242-3.
- [2] Jones, Mary. "Tri Thlws ar Ddeg Ynys Prydain". From maryjones.us. Retrieved June 16, 2009.
- [3] Tri Thlws ar Ddeg, ed. and tr. Bromwich (1978): pp. 240-1.
- [4] Tri Thlws ar Ddeg, ed. and tr. Bromwich (1978): 241.
- [5] Bromwich, Trioedd Ynys Prydein (1978): 245.
- [6] Mary Jones, "The Horn of Bran", citing Guto'r Glyn, Gwaith Guto'r Glyn, ed. Ifor Williams and Llywelyn Williams. Cardiff, 1939. p. 218, lines 61-4.
- [7] Carey, Ireland and the Grail, p. 74 note 33.
- [8] Carey, Ireland and the Grail, p. 69.
- [9] Carey, Ireland and the Grail, pp. 69-70.
- [10] Tri Thlws ar Ddeg, ed. and tr. Bromwich (1978): pp. 240 and 242.
- [11] Culhwch ac Olwen, ed. Bromwich and Evans, pp. 24 and 37; tr. Jones and Jones, pp. 103, 115-6. Bromwich, Trioedd Ynys Prydein (1978): 246.
- [12] Green, Concepts of Arthur.
- [13] Sims-Williams, "The significance of the Irish personal names in Culhwch and Olwen." pp. 603-4.
- [14] Gantz, p. 80.
- [15] Culhwch ac Olwen, ed. Bromwich and Evans, p. 63.
- [16] Gantz, p. 185.

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30.5.1 Primary sources

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30.5.2 Secondary sources

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30.6 Further reading

- Bartrum, Peter C. "Tri Thlws ar Ddeg Ynys Prydein." Études Celtiques 10 (1963). 434-77.
- Rowlands, Eurys I. "Y Tri Thlws ar Ddeg." *Llên Cymru* 5 (1958/9): 33–69, 145–7.

Fragarach

In Irish mythology, **Fragarach**, known as 'The Answerer' or 'The Retaliator', was the sword of Manannan mac Lir and later, Lugh Lamfada.

Forged by the gods, Manannan wielded it as his weapon before passing it on to Lugh (his foster son). It was given to Cúchulainn by Lugh, and later to Conn of the Hundred Battles.

It was said that no one could tell a lie or move, with Fragarach at his or her throat, thus the name 'Answerer'. It was also said to place the wind at the user's command and could cut through any shield or wall, and had a piercing wound from which no man could recover.

31.1 In popular culture

Science-fantasy author Patricia Kennealy Morrison uses Fragarach in her series The Keltiad the sword is used by several of her protagonists over the course of the series.

Fragarach appears in the Dungeons and Dragons module The Temple of Elemental Evil as a sword that never misses and "answers" any strike to the wielder with a strike of its own. It later reappeared in 4th Edition as a sword destined to slay Thrumbolg, a powerful fomorian lord.

In *Hounded*, written by Kevin Hearne, Atticus O'Sullivan wields the famous sword, and his possession of it is the cause of most of his troubles.

In the visual novel Fate/hollow ataraxia, the sword appears as the weapon of Bazett Fraga McRemitz. It is a weapon that, upon the activation of an opponent's strongest attack, reverses time and kills the enemy before they use their attack.

In the Digimon series, Fragarach is an extensible greatsword carried by Slayerdramon a Mega level Dragon Man Digimon.

In Diane Duane's novel A Wizard Abroad (as part of her Young Wizards series), Fragarach is used by Annie Callahan as part of a reenactment of the Second Battle of Magh Tuireadh. Besides its common use as a weapon, Fragarach is used to open a gate to the parallel dimension where the Fomor and the Tuatha De Danaan reside.

In the game Mabinogi, Lugh Lavada and Morgant use this weapon as a main weapon. It has 3 different designs.

In the PS3 game Folklore (known by the title Folkssoul in Japan), Answerer is a folk the player encounters and can capture in the fourth nether realm, The Endless Corridor.

31.2 External links

- Celtic Objects
- Encyclopaedia of the Celts

Gram (mythology)

"Balmung" redirects here. For the character from the ".hack" franchise, see Balmung (.hack).

In Norse mythology, **Gram**, (Old Norse Gramr, meaning Wrath)*[1] is the name of the sword that Sigurd used to kill the dragon Fafnir.*[2]

32.1 Description

Gram was forged by Volund and originally belonged to Sigurd's father, Sigmund, who received it in the hall of the Völsung after pulling it out of the tree Barnstokkr into which Odin had stuck it where no one else could pull it out. The sword was destroyed in battle when Sigmund struck the spear of an enemy soldier dressed in a wide brimmed hat and a black hooded cloak. Before he died, Sigmund instructed his wife to keep the pieces so that it might be reforged for their unborn son (Sigurd), whom she was carrying. The sword was eventually reforged by Regin for Sigurd's use. After it was reforged, it could cleave an anvil in twain.

In the *Nibelungenlied* (ca. 13th century), Siegfried discards Gram after receiving a legendary sword called **Balmung**; in Richard Wagner's *Ring Cycle* (1848–1874), it is called **Nothung**. It was left by Wotan for Siegmund, but when Fricka tells Wotan to make sure Sigmund loses his battle against Hunding, Wotan uses his spear to break Nothung. However his daughter the Valkyrie Brunnhilde takes the sword fragments and gives them to Sieglinde. Sieglinde eventually gives the sword fragments to the dwarf Mime as she entrusts her son Siegfried to him. The God Wotan claims only one who knows no fear can reforge the sword, this is his grandson Siegfried. Nothung later breaks Wotan's spear, the symbol of his power, after which Wotan is no longer seen. Some sources refer to the sword as **Balmus**.*[3]*[4]

Gram is depicted on several of the Sigurd stones. The depiction of Sigurd slaying the dragon by striking with the sword from below is one of the iconography used to identify those Viking Age images which depict the Sigurd legend.*[5]

32.2 References

- [1] Orchard, Andy (1997). Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend. Cassell. pp. 59-60. ISBN 0-304-34520-2.
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- [3] Santosuosso, Antonio (2004). Barbarians, Marauders, and Infidels: The Ways of Medieval Warfare. New York, NY: MJF Books. p. 134. ISBN 978-1-56731-891-3.
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Sigmund's Sword

Johannes Gehrts (1889)

32.2. REFERENCES 127



Sigurd proofs the sword Gram Johannes Gehrts (1901)

Hrunting

Hrunting was a sword given to Beowulf by Unferth in the ancient Old English epic poem *Beowulf*. Beowulf used it in battle against Grendel's Mother.

Beowulf is described receiving the sword in lines 1455-1458:

"And another item lent by Unferth at that moment of need was of no small importance: the brehon handed him a hilted weapon, a rare and ancient sword named Hrunting. The iron blade with its ill-boding patterns had been tempered in blood. It had never failed the hand of anyone who hefted it in battle, anyone who had fought and faced the worst in the gap of danger. This was not the first time it had been called to perform heroic feats.*[1]

However, although the sword possessed great power and was claimed to have never failed anyone who used it, when Beowulf descended to the bottom of the lake to fight Grendel's mother, the sword proved ineffective. As the "fabulous powers of that heirloom failed," Beowulf was forced to discard it.*[1]

33.1 Hrunting's significance

Swords have great significance in the war-centred Anglo-Saxon culture from which *Beowulf* arises. Therefore, emphasis is strongly placed on the exchange of weapons of war. Weapons such as swords circulated through Anglo-Saxon society as inheritance through family, birthed through the monsters, found under magic rocks, and as rewards between lords and their subjects. [2] Occasionally such exchange was also seen between warriors. One example of a weapon as a gift is seen in the exchange of Hrunting. As Unferth passes his sword to Beowulf, he admits the loss of his glory, and his submission to this greater warrior. However, when Hrunting fails Beowulf in his battle against Grendel's mother, it possibly reflects its previous owner, Unferth, who failed to defeat the hated Grendel. [3] In addition, Beowulf' s defeat of Grendel prompts the Danish king Hrothgar to bestow upon him many gifts consisting of weapons; this further emphasizes the importance of weaponry to such a society. Beowulf then passes on his rewards to his king Hygelac, thereby establishing his obligation to his king. [4] Hrunting' s various meanings demonstrate that weapons of war can carry not only positive, but also negative, significance.

33.2 Symbolism of Hrunting

Unferth's very act of giving Hrunting to Beowulf and the sword's unexpected failure in the battle against Grendel's mother bear much symbolism in the poem. Given that Unferth shows his dislike for Beowulf early in the story, Unferth's choice to award Beowulf with Hrunting, which means "thrusting," *[5] can be interpreted as a sign of peace and acceptance. In this light, the giving of the sword seems to be an indication of Unferth's recognition of Beowulf as a capable and powerful warrior. On the other hand, the poem portrays Unferth as a sly and treacherous man. Furthermore, scholars even propose that Hrunting is "the very sword with which [Unferth] slew his own kin." *[6] It is possible then that Unferth's motive in giving away his sword upon being confronted with the problem of Grendel's mother could very well be to avoid going into battle. The passing of Hrunting from Unferth's hand to Beowulf is therefore a reflection of Unferth's treachery as he abandons his role as a warrior of Heorot.*[7] At first glance, Unferth's sudden act of generosity towards Beowulf appears to have been done for noble reasons. However, what is known about Unferth and the sword's inefficacy in battle strongly suggest that Unferth's intentions are cowardly rather than noble.

33.3 Hrunting's failure

The reason behind Hrunting's failing against Grendel's Mother has been a point of much scholarly debate. J.L. Rosier, in *A Design for Treachery: The Unferth Intrigue*, puts forth the contention that Unferth deliberately gave Beowulf a sword that he knew would fail, possibly for the purpose of preventing Beowulf from succeeding where Unferth himself failed.*[8] Yet this point has been contested by J.D.A Oglivy, who notes that the poem itself offers another explanation. First, Oglivy notes that if Unferth supplied an inferior weapon then it doesn't follow for the poet to have gone into extensive detail about the magical infallibility of the sword. Further, as the sword that Beowulf ultimately finds and slays Grendel's Mother with is noted to be made by giants,*[9] it implies that Grendel's line possesses magical invulnerability that prevents weapons made by man from harming them.*[10]

Another explanation that has been put forth connects Hrunting's failure to the broader underlying message of Christianity prevalent throughout the poem. Kent Gould, in his essay "Beowulf" and Folktale Morphology: God as Magical Donor, suggests that Hrunting fails because it was given to Beowulf by Unferth, a heathen. Only the more powerful replacement blade that God gives Beowulf is capable of destroying evil. According to Gould, "the message would be clear enough to the poem's Christian audience: only God can contribute enough power to overcome enemies to whom the poem has elsewhere given a Scriptural history." *[11] Grendel and Grendel's mother have such a history, as Grendel's lineage is described in lines 106-108 to have descended from Cain.

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- [2] Heinrich Harke, "The Circulation of Weapons in Anglo-Saxon Society" in Rituals of Power: From Late Antiquity to the Middle Ages, ed. Frans Theuws (Boston, 2000), 377-78.
- [3] Geoffrey Hughes, "Beowulf, Unferth, and Hrunting: an interpretation" in English Studies (58, 1977), 393-95.
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Nægling

This article is about the sword in Beowulf, not to be confused with the blade used by Oromis in Eldest and Brisingr of the Inheritance Cycle.

Nægling is the name of one of the swords used by Beowulf in the Anglo-Saxon epic poem of *Beowulf*. The name derives from "nægl", or "nail", and may correspond to Nagelring, a sword from the *Vilkina saga*. It is possibly the sword of Hrethel, which Hygelac gave to Beowulf (Il. 2190-94).*[1]*[2] Nægling is referenced many times as a fine weapon--it is "sharp", "gleaming", "bright", "mighty", "strong", and has a venerable history as an "excellent ancient sword", "old heirloom", and "old and grey-colored".*[3] However, the sword does not survive Beowulf's final encounter with the dragon, snapping in two--not because of the dragon's strength, but because of the hero's strength:*[4]

Nægling forbærst,

geswác æt sæcce sweord Bíowulfes, gomol ond grægmæl. Him þæt gifeðe ne wæs bæt him írenna ecge mihton

helpan æt hilde; wæs sío hond tó strong

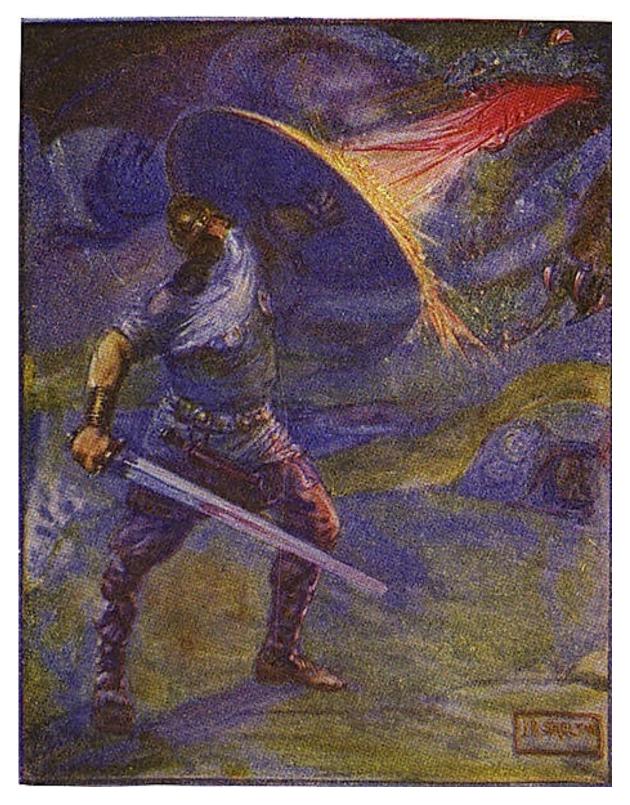
Beowulf's hand is "too strong" for the weapon. Stopford Brooke claims this is "absurd, for Beowulf had fought with it all his life", and that "some later editor" inserted the passage, conflating Beowulf with a story told of Offa of Mercia.*[4] While Taylor Culbert argues the poet blames the weapon for it, effectively "aggrandiz[ing] Beowulf in the eyes of the reader", *[3] Judy Anne White, in a Jungian reading of the poem, proposes that "Beowulf's inability to use a sword is a part of his destiny, a question of fate, and therefore beyond his control." *[5]

The idea of a sword failing for the hero at a crucial time has parallels in other Germanic works such as in the *Volsunga saga* and *Gesta Danorum*. However this is especially true in the *Gunnlaugs saga*, where the author goes at pains to show that it was the hero and not the foe who broke the sword.*[6] Furthermore, in Germanic tradition, exceptional swords may often use words such as old, ancient, or ancestral. However this may not always fit the story of the hero, such as when the sword is forged for him. In Naegling's case, the sword has more of a literary characteristic than a specific ancestral lineage, as is evident from its name. Nevertheless the sword is described as being *gomol ond grægmæl* (old and gray).*[7]

34.1 Notes

[1] Mullally, Erin (2005). "Hrethel's Heirloom: Kinship, Succession, and Weaponry in *Beowulf*". In Yvonne Bruce. *Images of Matter: Essays on British Literature of the Middle Ages and Renaissance: Proceedings of the Eighth Citadel Conference on Literature, Charleston, South Carolina, 2002. U of Delaware P. pp. 228–42. ISBN 9780874138948. Retrieved 14 August 2013.*

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Beowulf fights the dragon, wielding Nægling.

[2] Klaeber, Friedrich; Fulk, Robert Dennis; Bjork, Robert E.; John D. Niles (2008). *Klaeber's Beowulf and The Fight at Finnsburg*. U of Toronto P. pp. 254, 471. ISBN 9780802095671. Retrieved 14 August 2013.

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[3] Culbert, Taylor (1960). "The Narrative Functions of Beowulf's Swords". *Journal of English and Germanic Philology* **59** (1): 13–20.

- [4] Brooke, Stopford A. (1892). The history of early English literature. New York: Macmillan. pp. 54 n.1.
- [5] White, Judy Anne (2004). Hero-Ego in Search of Self: A Jungian Reading of Beowulf. Peter Lang. pp. 105–6. ISBN 9780820431154.
- [6] Garbáty, Thomas Jay (1962). *The Fallible Sword: Inception of a Motif*. The Journal of American Folklore. American Folklore Society. p. 58-9
- [7] Portnoy, Phyllis (February 1, 2006). *The Remnant: Essays on a Theme in Old English Verse*. Runetree. p. 25. ISBN 1-898577-10-2.

Dáinsleif

 $\textbf{D\'ainsleif} \ ("D\'ainn's \ legacy" \) \ is \ king \ H\"{o}gni's \ sword, \ according \ to \ Snorri \ Sturluson's \ account \ of \ the \ battle \ known \ as \ the \ Hjaðningavíg.$

When Heðinn offers him compensation for the abduction of his daughter, Högni replies:

'Thou hast made this offer over-late, if thou wouldst make peace: for now I have drawn **Dáinsleif**, which the dwarves made, and which must cause a man's death every time it is bared,*[1] nor ever fails in its stroke; moreover, the wound heals not if one be scratched with it.'

—Skáldskaparmál (50), Brodeur's translation*[2]

35.1 Notes

- [1] Like Tyrfing.
- [2] Brodeur, Arthur Gilchrist (trans.). 1916. Snorri Sturluson: The Prose Edda. New York: The American-Scandinavian Foundation.

Hǫfuð

Hofuð (means "man-head" *[1]) is the sword of Heimdall. It's mentioned in *Gylfaginning* chapter 26.

And Skáldskaparmál mentions a mysterious myth about Heimdall's head and sword in chapter 8.

36.1 Notes

- [1] Simek (2007:155).
- [2] Faulkes (1982:26).

36.2 References

- Simek, Rudolf (2007) translated by Angela Hall. *Dictionary of Northern Mythology*. D.S. Brewer. ISBN 0-85991-513-1.
- Faulkes, Anthony (1982), edition of: Snorri Sturluson. *Edda. Prologue and Gylfaginning*. London: Viking Society for Northern Research. ISBN 0-903521-21-0.

Hrotti

Hrotti is a sword in the Völsung cycle (*Fáfnismál*, *Völsunga saga*, 20). It was a part of Fáfnir's treasure, which Sigurðr took after he slew the dragon.

37.1 References

• Dillmann, François-Xavier. Notes de : Snorri Sturluson. *L'Edda : récits de mythologie nordique*. Trad. du vieil-islandais, intr. et annoté par François-Xavier Dillmann. Paris : Gallimard, 2003. (L'Aube des peuples). P. 202. ISBN 2-07-072114-0.

Lævateinn

In Norse mythology, **Lævateinn** is a weapon mentioned in the *Poetic Edda* poem *Fjölsvinnsmál*. The name *Lævateinn* does not appear in the original manuscript reading, but is an emendation from **Hævateinn** made by Sophus Bugge and others. The amended name *Lævateinn* is etymologically considered to be a kenning for a sword (Old Norse "damage twig" *[1]).

38.1 Fjölsvinnsmál

The weapon is mentioned briefly in the poem *Fjölsvinnsmál*:

Bellows comments that *Lægjarn* means "Lover of Ill" and, like the name *Lopt*, refers to Loki.*[3]

38.2 Theories

Viktor Rydberg theorized that the weapon referred to was the sword forged by Völundr, and is the same one as Freyr gave away to gain Gerðr. Henry Adams Bellows comments that, regarding Lævateinn, "the suggestion the reference is to the mistletoe which Baldr was killed seems hardly reasonable." *[3]

Leszek Gardeła theorized that the weapon was a magic staff, *tein*, meaning 'twig', being part of the general word for magic staff *gambantein*.* [4]

38.3 Notes

- [1] Simek (2007:185).
- [2] Thorpe (1907:96–97).
- [3] Bellows (2004:245).
- [4] Gardela (2009).

38.4 References

• Bellows, Henry Adams (Trans.) (2004). The Poetic Edda: The Mythological Poems. Courier Dover Publications.

[&]quot;Laevatein" redirects here. For the videogame, see Hero's Saga Laevatein Tactics.

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ISBN 0-486-43710-8

• Gardeła, Leszek (2009). "A Biography of the Seiðr-Staffs. Towards an Archaeology of Emotions". In L.P. Słupecki, J. Morawiec (eds.), *Between Paganism and Christianity in the North*. Rzeszów: Rzeszów University, 190-219.

- Simek, Rudolf (2007) translated by Angela Hall. *Dictionary of Northern Mythology*. D.S. Brewer. ISBN 0-85991-513-1
- Thorpe, Benjamin (Trans.) (1907). The Elder Edda of Saemund Sigfusson. Norrœna Society.

Legbiter

Legbiter was the sword of Magnus III of Norway. When King Magnus was killed in an ambush by the Men of Ulster, his sword was retrieved and sent home.*[1]

39.1 References

[1] Sturluson, Snorri (1991). *Heimskringla: history of the kings of Norway*. trans. Lee Milton Hollander. University of Texas Press. p. 685. ISBN 0-292-73061-6.

Mistilteinn

Mistilteinn ("Mistletoe"), also known as *Misteltein* or *Mystletainn*, is Hrómundr Gripsson's sword in *Hrómundar saga Gripssonar*, a legendary saga from Iceland.

Mistilteinn first belonged to Þráinn, who had been king in Valland before he retired in his burial mound with his wealth.

The Danish king Óláfr and his men, among whom Hrómundr Gripsson, learnt about that and found the barrow. Práinn, who had become a *draugr* (living dead) was sitting inside. No one but Hrómundr dared to enter. After a long and fierce fight, he defeated Práinn and took his treasure, especially his sword, with which Práinn had killed four hundred and twenty men, including the Swedish king Semingr.

Hrómundr used Mistilteinn during the battle between Óláfr and two Swedish kings both named Haldingr. He killed Helgi *inn frækni* (the Valiant), who had slain his brothers. He then lost Mistilteinn in the water out of witchcraft. He deeply felt this loss but soon recovered his sword, which was found in the stomach of a pike. But Mistilteinn was of no help when he fought king Haldingr, whom he eventually killed with a club.

In Gesta Danorum, Mistletoe is the weapon used to kill Baldr.

40.1 External links

• A translation in English by Gavin Chappell with Facing Old Norse Text

Ridill

Ridill is weapon that appears in Norse Mythology, possessed by the dwarf Regin.

Under the guidance of Regin, Sigurd killed Fafnir, Regin's older brother that had killed their father Hreidmarr and monopolized his treasure. Afterward, Fafnir's heart was cut out and roasted for Sigurd and Regin to eat. According to Poetic Edda, Regin used Ridill to rip out Fafnir's heart. But in the Volsunga saga, it is Sigurd who used Ridill and cut out the heart at that occasion.*[1]

Incidentally, in the Skáldskaparmál the name of Regin's sword is **Refil** instead.

41.1 References

[1] Byock, Jesse L. Saga of the Volsungs. University of california Press, 1990, p. 65

Skofnung

Skofnung was the sword of legendary Danish king Hrólf Kraki. "The best of all swords that have been carried in northern lands", it was renowned for supernatural sharpness and hardness, as well as for being imbued with the spirits of the king's 12 faithful berserker bodyguards.

It appears in saga unrelated to Hrólf, it being said that an Icelander, Skeggi of Midfirth, who was chosen by lot to break into the gravemound and plunder it, recovered the sword while doing so, so it may have had some historical reality. Other similar incidents are found in Norse literature, such as Grettir the Strong's recovery of a sword from a burial mound. Events concerning the recovery of Skofnung are related in chapter 9 and 10 of Kormáks saga.

It also appears in the Laxdœla saga, where it has come into the possession of Eid of Ás. Eid is the son of Midfjardar-Skeggi, who had originally taken Skofnung from Hrólf Kraki's grave. The sword is handed down from Eid to his kinsman Thorkel Eyjólfsson. Eid lends the sword to Thorkel to kill the outlaw Grim, who had killed Eid's son. Thorkel fought Grim, but the two became friends, and Thorkel never returned the sword to Eid.

Skofnung is briefly lost when Thorkel's ship is capsized while sailing around Iceland, and all of those on it drown. The sword stuck fast in some of the timbers of the ship, and washed ashore. It was thus recovered at some point by Thorkel's son Gellir, as he is mentioned carrying it with him later in the saga. Gellir dies in Denmark returning from pilgrimage to Rome, and is buried at Roskilde, and it seems Skofnung was buried with him (near where the sword was recovered from the burial mound in the first place) because the saga records that Gellir had the sword with him "and it was not recovered afterwards".

According to Eid of Ás in chapter 57 of the Laxdœla saga, the sword is not to be drawn in the presence of women, and that the sun must never shine on the sword's hilt. This is in accordance with many other ancient superstitions, such as the Eggjum stone in Norway. It is also told by Eid that any wound made by Skofnung will not heal unless rubbed with the Skofnung Stone, which Eid gives to Thorkel Eyjólfsson along with the sword.

Tyrfing

For other uses, see Tyrfing (disambiguation).

Tyrfing, Tirfing or Tyrving (The name is of uncertain origin, possibly connected to the Terwingi) was a magic sword in



Svafrlami secures the sword Tyrfing.

Norse mythology, which figures in the Tyrfing Cycle, which includes a poem from the *Poetic Edda* called *Hervararkviða*, and the Hervarar saga. The name is also used in the saga to denote the Goths. The form *Tervingi* was actually recorded by Roman sources in the 4th century.

Svafrlami was the king of Gardariki, and Odin's grandson. He managed to trap the dwarves Dvalinn and Durin when they had left the rock where they dwelt. Then he forced them to forge a sword with a golden hilt that would never miss a stroke, would never rust and would cut through stone and iron as easily as through clothes.

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The dwarves made the sword, and it shone and gleamed like fire. However, in revenge they cursed it so that it would kill a man every time it was drawn and that it would be the cause of three great evils. They finally cursed it so that it would also kill Syafrlami himself.

When Svafrlami heard the curses he tried to slay Dvalin, but the dwarf disappeared into the rock and the sword was driven deep into it, though missing its victim.

Svafrlami was killed by the berserker Arngrim who took the sword in his turn. After Arngrim, it was worn by Angantyr and his eleven brothers. They were all slain at Samsø, by the Swedish champion Hjalmar, and his Norwegian sworn brother Orvar-Odd; but Hjalmar, being wounded by Tyrfing (its first evil deed), has only time to sing his death-song before he dies, and asks Orvar-Odd to bring his body to Ingeborg, daughter of Yngvi at Uppsala.

Angantyr's daughter, Hervor (by his wife Tófa) is brought up as a bond-maid, in ignorance of her parentage. When at last she learns it, she arms herself as a shieldmaiden, and goes to Munarvoe in Samsø, in quest of the dwarf-cursed weapon. She finds it and marries King Gudmund's son Höfund. They have two sons, Heidrek and Angantyr. Hervor secretly gave her son the sword Tyrfing. While Angantyr and Heidrek walked, Heidrek wanted to have a look at the sword. Since he had unsheathed it, the curse the dwarves had put on the sword made Heidrek kill his brother Angantyr. This was the second of Tyrfing's three evil deeds.

Heidrek became king of the Goths. During a voyage, Heidrek camped at the Carpathians (Harvaða fjöllum, cf. Grimm's law). He was accompanied by eight mounted thralls, and when Heidrek slept at night, the thralls broke into his tent and took Tyrfing and slew Heidrek. This was the last one of Tyrfing's three evil deeds. Heidrek's son, also named Angantyr, caught and killed the thralls, and reclaimed the magic sword, and the curse had ceased.

Angantyr was the next king of the Goths, but his illegitimate half-Hun brother Hlod (or Hlöd, Hlöðr) wanted half of the kingdom. Angantýr refused, and Gizur called Hlod a bastard and his mother a slave-girl. Hlod and 343,200 mounted Huns invade the Goths (See The Battle of the Goths and Huns). The Huns greatly outnumber the Goths. The Goths won because Angantyr used Tyrfing. He killed his brother Hlod on the battleground. The bodies of the numerous warriors choke the rivers, causing a flood which filled the valleys with dead men and horses.

43.1 See also

• Fornsigtuna

Almace

In the legendary *Song of Roland*, **Almace**, **Almice** or **Almacia** is the sword of Turpin, Archbishop of Reims, one of the last three Franks to die at the Battle of Roncevaux Pass, along with Roland (Orlando in Italian) and Gualter de Hum.

Unlike Roland's much more famous sword Durendal, very little is said about Almace in the Song of Roland. However the Norse saga, the *Karlamagnus saga* expands this slightly, [1] claiming that a sword called Kurt (better known as the Curtana), Almace and Durendal were three swords forged by the legendary Anglo-Saxon blacksmith Weyland, and presented to Charlemagne. Charlemagne tested the swords by seeing how far they would cut into a steel mound; Kurt penetrated "a hand's breadth" but was notched, Almace penetrated a hand's breadth without damage, and Durendal penetrated "half the length of a man's foot". Charlemagne gave Kurt to Ogier the Dane and Almace to Bishop Turpin, and initially kept Durendal for himself. (Later he was told in a dream to give Durendal to Count Roland.)

Another legend,*[2] written about Curtana itself, claims that it, Durendal, and Charlemagne's Joyeuse are a set of three, leaving Almace's origins unexplained.

The etymology of the name is uncertain, but it may be derived from German,*[3] or from the Old Norse *all macht*, meaning Almighty.

44.1 References

- [1] http://www.brown.edu/Departments/Italian_Studies/people/zafrin/kms2.html
- [2] Bullfinch's Mythology, "Legends of Charlemagne," Chapter 24
- [3] Sayers, Dorothy L., translator (1957). *The Song of Roland*. Hammondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books. p. 38. ISBN 0-14-044075-5.

Curtana

This article is about the sword. For articles with related names, see Cortana (disambiguation).

Curtana, also known as **Cortana** and the **Sword of Mercy**, is a ceremonial sword used in the coronation of the British monarchs. One of the Crown Jewels of the United Kingdom, its end is blunt and squared, said to symbolize mercy. It is linked to the legendary sword carried by Tristan and Ogier the Dane.

45.1 History

A coronation sword named "Curtana" is first documented during the reign of Henry III of England, and was used in the coronation of his wife Queen Eleanor of Provence in 1236.*[1]*[2] The name is probably intended to imply "shortness", as the end is cut off. The coronation tradition involving three swords dates back at least to Richard I, though their meanings changed over time.*[3]

Henry III's Curtana was said to have been the sword of the legendary knight Tristan. This connection may have come about due to its broken end, as Tristan was said to have left a piece of his sword in the skull of Morholt.*[4] A sword named "Cortana", "Curtana", etc., was also attributed to Ogier the Dane, one of Charlemagne's paladins in the Matter of France. According to the legend, it bore the inscription "My name is Cortana, of the same steel and temper as Joyeuse and Durendal." *[5] The 13th-century Prose *Tristan* states that Ogier inherited Tristan's sword, shortening it and naming it *Cortaine*; this suggests the author knew the tradition connecting Henry's Curtana to Tristan.*[1]*[6]

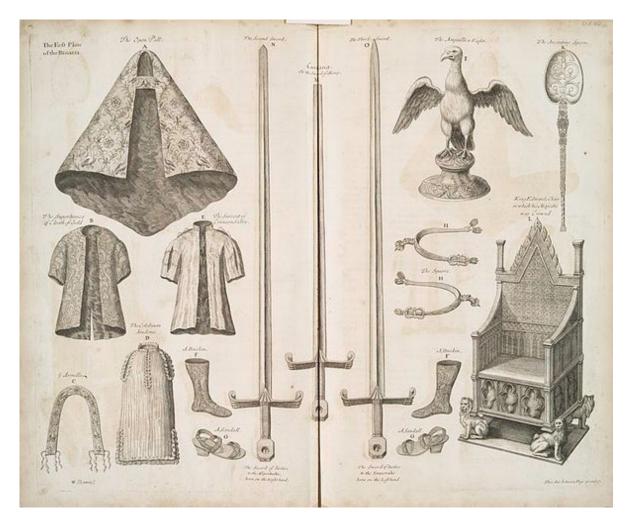
The meaning attributed to Curtana and the other two British coronation swords shifted over time. During the coronation of Henry VI, Curtana was evidently considered the "Sword of Justice", while a second sword was the "Sword of the Church". Eventually, however, Curtana's blunt edge was taken to represent mercy, and it thus came to be known as the Sword of Mercy. Henry VI's coronation featured Curtana as the Sword of Mercy along with two other swords: the sharply pointed Sword of Justice to the Temporality and the more obtuse Sword of Justice to the Spirituality. These designations remain today.*[3]

Curtana and its legendary predecessors have entered into popular culture. The artificial intelligence character Cortana in the *Halo* video game franchise is named for the historical and legendary sword.*[7]

45.2 References

- [1] Harper-Bill, Christopher, and Ruth Harvey (1990). *The Ideals and Practice of Medieval Knighthood III*, p. 134. Boydell Press. ISBN 0851152651.
- [2] Legg, Leopold George Wickham (1901). English Coronation Records, p. xxiii. A. Constable & Company.
- [3] Legg, Leopold George Wickham (1901). English Coronation Records, p. xxv. A. Constable & Company.

45.2. REFERENCES 147



Curtana, the Sword of Mercy (center), with a portion of the other Crown Jewels

- [4] Harper-Bill, Christopher, and Ruth Harvey (1990). *The Ideals and Practice of Medieval Knighthood III*, p. 132, 134. Boydell Press. ISBN 0851152651.
- [5] Bullfinch's Mythology, Legends of Charlemagne, Chapter 24
- [6] Gardner, Edmund Garratt. *Arthurian Legend in English Literature*. -- Temple Press, Letchworth, Hertfordshire. 1930. -- p. 172. Retrieved 6 December 2010.
- [7] MacKay, Jill (2006). "The Modern Mythos". In Yeffeth, Glenn (ed.). *Halo Effect: An Unauthorized Look at the Most Successful Video Game of All Time*. Dallas, Texas: BenBella Books. pp. 92–93.

Durendal

For other uses, see Durandal (disambiguation).

Durandal or Durendal (most likely from the French "durer", "to endure"); Italian: Durlindana; Spanish: Durandal



Alleged fragment of Durandal in Rocamadour

is the sword of Charlemagne's paladin Roland in the literary series known as the Matter of France.

The origin of the sword received various accounts; the sword is given various provenances in the Matter of France. Several of the works of the Matter of France, however, agree that the sword was forged by Wayland the Smith, who is commonly cited as a maker of romantic weapons.*[1] According to the *Song of Roland*, the sword is brought by an angel

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to Charlemagne, who gives it to Roland.*[2] According to Ludovico Ariosto's *Orlando Furioso* it once belonged to Hector of Troy, and was given to Roland by Malagigi (Maugris). This is questionable, given that the swords of Hector's time were made of bronze.

In *The Song of Roland*, the sword is said to contain within its golden hilt one tooth of Saint Peter, blood of Saint Basil, hair of Saint Denis, and a piece of the raiment of the Blessed Virgin Mary, and to be the sharpest sword in all existence.*[3] In the poem, Roland uses the sword to hold off a hundred-thousand-strong Muslim army long enough for Charlemagne's army to retreat into France.*[4] Roland attempted to destroy the sword to prevent it from being captured by the attacking Saracens and created La Brèche de Roland in the Pyrenees in the process.*[5] But Durandal proved indestructible, so he hid it beneath his body along with the oliphant, the horn used to alert Charlemagne.*[6]

Local folklore claims Durandal still exists, preserved in Rocamadour, France, embedded in a cliff wall. In the twelfth century, the monks of Rocamadour claimed that Roland threw the sword rather than hid it beneath himself. However, the local tourist office calls the sword a replica of Durandal.*[7]

46.1 Footnotes

- [1] Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia, p. 65
- [2] Brault, p. 443
- [3] Auty, p. 126
- [4] Caro, p. 106
- [5] Walsh, p. 264
- [6] Cox, p. 340
- [7] Caro, pp. 106–107

46.2 References

- Auty, Robert (1980). Traditions of Heroic and Epic Poetry. London: Modern Humanities Research Association. ISBN 0-900547-72-3.
- Brault, Gerard J. (1996). *The Song of Roland: An Analytical Introduction and Commentary*. University Park: Pennsylvania State Univ. ISBN 0-271-02455-0.
- Caro, Ina (1996). The Road From the Past: Traveling Through History in France. San Diego: Harcourt Brace & Co. ISBN 0-15-600363-5.
- Cox, George William (1871). Popular Romances of the Middle Ages. London: Longmans, Green, and Co.
- Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia (1902). Proceedings of the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia.
- Walsh, William Shepard (1914). Heroes and Heroines of Fiction. London: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Hauteclere

Hauteclere (or Halteclere, or Hauteclaire, literally "High and neat") is the sword of Olivier, a character in the French epic "The Song of Roland". It is described as being of burnished steel, with a crystal embedded in a golden hilt.

Joyeuse

For other uses, see Joyeuse (disambiguation).

Joyeuse (French pronunciation: [ʒwaˈjøz]), is the name tradition attributes to Charlemagne's personal sword. The name



Joyeuse displayed in the Louvre.

translates as "joyous".

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48.1 Joyeuse in legend

Some legends claim Joyeuse was forged to contain the Lance of Longinus within its pommel; others say the blade was smithed from the same materials as Roland's Durendal and Ogier's Curtana.*[1]*[2]

The 11th century Song of Roland describes the sword:

[Charlemagne] was wearing his fine white coat of mail and his helmet with gold-studded stones; by his side hung Joyeuse, and never was there a sword to match it; its colour changed thirty times a day.

Some seven hundred years later, *Bulfinch's Mythology* described Charlemagne using *Joyeuse* to behead the Saracen commander Corsuble as well as to knight his comrade Ogier the Dane. The town of Joyeuse, in Ardèche, is supposedly named after the sword: Joyeuse was allegedly lost in a battle and retrieved by one of the knights of Charlemagne; to thank him, Charlemagne granted him an appanage named Joyeuse. Baligant, a general of the Saracens in *The Song of Roland*, named his sword Précieuse, in order not to seem inferior to Charlemagne.

48.2 Coronation sword of the French kings

A sword identified with Charlemagne's *Joyeuse* was carried in front of the Coronation processionals for French kings, for the first time in 1270 (Philip III), and for the last time in 1824 (Charles X). The sword was kept in the Saint Denis Basilica since at least 1505, and it was moved to the Louvre in 1793.

This *Joyeuse* as preserved today is a composite of various parts added over the centuries of use as coronation sword. But at the core, it consists of a medieval blade of Oakeshott type XII, mostly dated to about the 10th century. Martin Conway argued the blade might date to the early 9th century, opening the possibility that it was indeed the sword of Charlemagne, while Guy Laking dated it to the early 13th century. Some authors have even argued that the medieval blade may have been replaced by a modern replica in 1804 when the sword was prepared for the coronation of Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Louvre's official website dates the pommel to the 10th to 11th centuries, the crossguard to the 12th and the grip to the 13th century.*[3]

48.3 Sword in Vienna

Before the Miholjanec legend had been regarded, the so-called sword of Attila in Vienna was known as the sword of Charlemagne.*[4]

48.4 References

- [1] Bullfinch's Mythology, Legends of Charlemagne, Chapter 24
- [2] Santosuosso, Antonio (2004). Barbarians, Marauders, and Infidels: The Ways of Medieval Warfare. New York, NY: MJF Books. p. 134. ISBN 978-1-56731-891-3.
- [3] Coronation sword and scabbard of the Kings of France on the Official Website of the Louvre.
- [4] European weapons and armour: from the Renaissance to the industrial revolution, page 151, R Ewart Oakeshott, North Hollywood, Calif.: Beinfeld Pub., 1980. ISBN 978-0-917714-27-6

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Louis XIV with Joyeuse (Hyacinthe Rigaud, 1701)

Murgleys

Murgleys, or **Murgleis** (possibly "Death brand" *[1]) is the sword of Ganelon, a traitorous French (Frankish) count and nemesis to the titular hero of the epic *La chanson de Roland* (*The Song of Roland*).*[1]

According to the French version, its "gold pommel" *[2] held some kind of a "holy relic".*[3] In the Middle High German adaptation (Konrad der Pfaffe's *Rolandslied*) the sword is called Mulagir, touted to be the "best seax (type of sword) in all of France", described as having a carbuncle shining on its pommel, and forged by a smith named Madelger in Regensburg.*[4]

49.1 Etymology

Dorothy L. Sayers, a translator of *The Song of Roland* suggests the sword means "Death brand" *[1] (See #Similarly named swords below). Belgian scholar Rita Lejeune gave the meaning "Moorish sword," *[5] but Arabist James A. Bellamy proposed the Arabic etymology *māriq 'alyas* meaning "valiant piercer" .*[6]

49.2 Similarly named swords

At least three swords bearing the similar name Murglaie occur in other chansons de geste.*[7]

- Murglaie sword of Elias, the Swan Knight of the Crusades cycle,
- Murglaie sword of Cornumarant, the Saracen king of Jerusalem, taken by Baudouin de Syrie (the historical Baldwin I of Jerusalem)
- Murglaie sword of Boeve de Haumtone; better known as Morglay of Bevis of Hampton.

Note that "Morglay" has been given the etymology *morte* "death" + "glaive"*[8] coinciding with the conjectural meaning of "Death brand" for Ganelon's sword, proposed by Sayers.*[1]

49.3 References

- [1] Sayers, Dorothy L., translator (1957). *The Song of Roland* (preview). Hammondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books. p. 38. ISBN 0-14-044075-5.
- [2] Song of Roland, v. 466
- [3] Song of Roland, v. 607

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[4] Rolandslied vv. 1585–8; Thomas, J. W. (translator) (1994), Priest Konrad's Song of Roland / translated and with an introduction by, Columbia, S.C.: Camden House

- [5] Lejeune, Rita (1950), *Mélanges de linguistique et de littérature Romances, offerts à Mario Roques*: 163 lchapter= ignored (help), cited (and given in English) by Bellamy 1987, p. 274, note 34
- [6] Bellamy, James A. (1987), "Arabic names in the Chanson de Roland: Saracen Gods, Frankish swords, Roland horse, and the Olifant", *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 197 (2): 274
- [7] Langlois, Ernest, ed. (1904), Table des noms, Paris: Emile Bouillon
- [8] Bailey, Nathan (1731), An Universal Etymological English Dictionary

Précieuse

For the 17th century French intellectual phenomenon, see Précieuses.

Précieuse (French for precious) is the sword of Baligant, the Saracen king in the French epic *The Song of Roland*.*[1] Baligant allegedly named his sword in response to hearing that Charlemagne's sword had a name. Throughout the epic, there are several contrasts between the two, with Baligant being portrayed as a foolish counterpart to Charlemagne. Baligant felt inferior, and so named his sword with a similar name.

50.1 References

[1] Sayers, Dorothy L., translator (1957). *The Song of Roland*. Hammondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books. p. 38. ISBN 0-14-044075-5.

Tizona

Tizona is the name of the sword carried by Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar, El Cid, which was used to fight the Moors in Spain according to the Cantar de Mio Cid. The name *Tizón* translates to *burning stick*, *firebrand*.*[1]

A sword identified with *Tizona* is on display at the Museo de Burgos, in Burgos.

51.1 Legendary sword

The Tizona, or Tizón, is one of the swords (together with La Colada) attributed to El Cid in Spanish literature. According to the Cantar de Mio Cid, El Cid won the sword from its previous owner, King Yucef in Valencia. Afterward, it was gifted by El Cid to his sons-in-law, the Infantes de Carrión but eventually returned into the possession of El Cid.

Similar to the other sword attributed to El Cid, La Colada, there exists little historical evidence verifying the existence of a sword named Tizona belonging to Rodrigo Díaz. Later there developed the common opinion that identified the sword of James I of Aragon, named Tisó, with the one attributed to the Cid in the Cantar de gesta, but this is contrasted with the Llibre dels fets (a series of autobiographical chronicles including James I of Aragon) in which the Tisó is described in detail without any mention of The Cid, most likely owing to a simple coincidence of name. Also, the Tisó of the James I was descended from Ramon Berenguer I, who was in possession of the sword until 1020. This makes it unlikely that the sword would have passed from its previous owners to the Cid and that it would then have returned to the House of Aragon. It seems more logical that the Tisó was always in Aragon possession and that the confusion arises from a coincidental similarity in naming.

There exist various *Tizonas* which have been attributed to the Cid. One of these figured in the treasure stock of the regent house of Castilla that was transferred by Álvaro de Luna, recovered in 1452 and placed in an inventory of the Alcázar of Segovia. In the inventory there remains the description of "a sword called Tizona, that belonged to the Cid; it has a channel in each side, with gilded lettering; it has a hilt, and cross, and a block of silver, and in relief castles and lions and a small golden lion on each part of the cross; and has a scabbard of red leather lined with green velvet." This sword was ceremonial, owing to its adornment (which reflects its Castillian heraldry) and would have belonged to a member of the Castillian royalty or their family. After this mention in the inventory list there are no other historical notices, although the blade currently residing in the Royal Armory of Madrid could be the same one described in 1503.*[2]

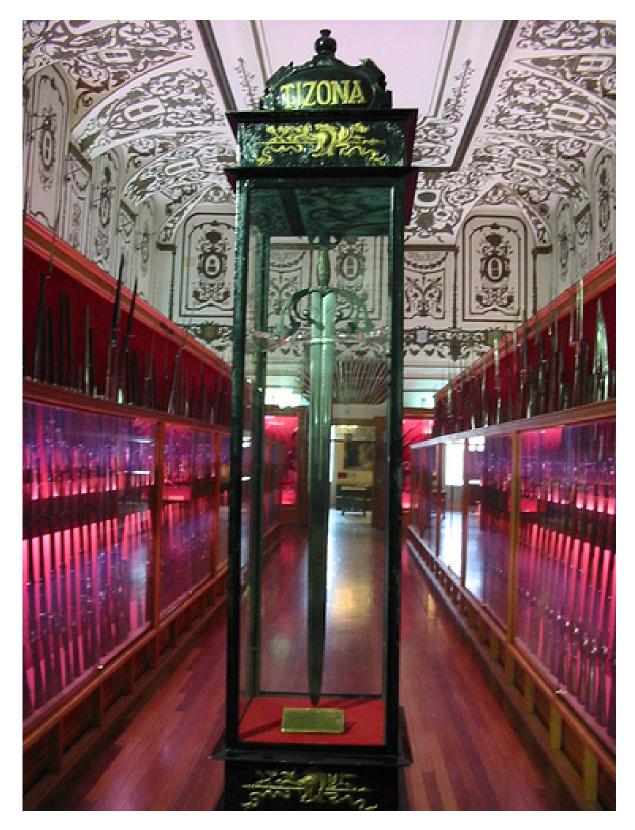
Another presumed Tizona belonged to the Marqueses de Falces, to whom the sword was given by Fernando II of Aragon. It has been kept since at least the 17th century in the Castle of Marcilla and that is currently on display in the Museum of Burgos alongside other presumed relics of the Cid.

The sword at Burgos is 103 centimetres (41 in) long and weighs 1.1 kilograms (2.4 lb). Tizona was supposedly forged in Córdoba, though considerable amounts of Damascus steel can be found in its blade.

There are two inscriptions on the sword:

IO SOI TISONA FUE FECHA EN LA ERA DE MIL E QUARENTA — Medieval Castilian for: "I am Tizona,

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Tizona

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made in the year 1040", but in Spanish medieval sources, "era" implies Hispanic Era, by which the History of Spain starts in 38 BC, so the intended date has been presumed to be AD 1002.

And:

AVE MARIA ~ GRATIA PLENA ~ DOMINUS TECUM —Latin for: "Hail Mary, full of grace. The Lord is with thee", St. Gabriel Archangel's greeting to the Blessed Virgin Mary in the Gospel according to St. Luke.

The adornment of the sword has a plain pommel, a long and conical hilt, lined with iron; the hilt is curved and the sideboards contain spikes. All of these traits are characteristic of a typology dating to the ends of the 15th century. The inscription has caused some discussion, in that the sword, if historically accurate, could not have been made in the year 1040. There have been arguments, however, pointing out that the medieval Spanish use of the word "era" implies Hispanic Era, in which the history of Spain starts in 38 BC, making the actual date of the sword AD 1002. Still controversial is the use of the word *Tizona*, that came into use only with the 14th century, as opposed to *Tizon* which is the term used to refer to the sword in the oldest sources. Menéndez Pidal has expressed the opinion that the sword is a forgery of the 16th century. Other authors, like Bruhn, postulate that the blade could be also apocryphal Colada that was described in the same inventory of 1503. The recent investigations of the Complutense University of Madrid, published in 2001, signal that the sword is from the 11th century; nevertheless the Curator of the Royal Armory Álvaro Soler del Campo points out that the sword is formed of three joined pieces and that their typology is the same as that of the handle, adornment, and the inscription, from the era of the Catholic Monarchs.*[3]

The King Fernando the Catholic gave the sword to Pedro de Peralta y Ezpeleta, the first Count of Santisteban of Lerín, for services rendered in the negotiations that led to his marriage with Isabel of Castile. This sword remained in the control of the marquis of Falces until the 20th century in the Palacial Castle of Marcilla. The sword is described there as: "With a handle and hilt of completely black iron, double-sided blade, thin, polished, smooth."

The sword was declared Bien de Interés Cultural on January 18, 2003.

After the Spanish Civil War, the sword that belonged to the Marquis of Falces and was later deposited in the Madrid Museum of Ejército was moved to its new site in the Alcázar of Toledo. The owner José Ramón Suárez del Otero, marquis of Falces, offered its sale to the Ministry of Culture (Spain), which declined its purchase due to a lack of historical proof that it had belonged to the Cid and for the elevated price demanded by the owner (reports from the ministry valued it somewhere between 200,000-300,000 euros, according to Reuters). It was finally acquired in 2007 by the Castile and León and the Cabinet of Commerce and Industry of Burgos*[4] The price paid to the marquis of Falces for the sword was 1.6 million euros.*[5] It was expected that its final destination would be the same cathedral that houses the tomb of the Cid and his wife Jimena along with other items related to the Cid.

In the heroic poem Cantar de Mio Cid, Tizona's power depends on the wielder and it frightens unworthy opponents. When the infantes of Carrión have Tizona, they underestimate the power of the sword, due to their cowardice, but when Pero Vermúdez is going to fight Ferrán González and unsheathes Tizona (given as a present from El Cid), Ferrán González yells and surrenders, cowering in terror at the sight of Tizona.

Verses 3642-3645:*[6]

Él dexó la lança, e mano al espada metió; cuando lo vio Ferrán González, conuvo a Tizón, que antes qu'el golpe esperasse, dixo: -¡Vençido sói!-

Translation:

He [Pero Vermúdez] let go the lance and took the sword in hand; when Ferrán González saw that, he recognized Tizona and before the expected blow said, "I am defeated!"

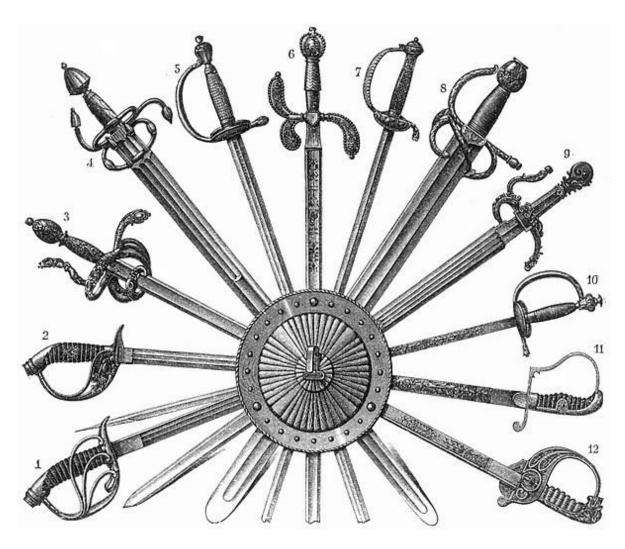
51.2 Notes

[1] Sebastián de Covarrubias. Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española, 1611.

51.2. NOTES 161

- [2] Montaner Frutos (2011:942-943)
- [3] Montaner Frutos (2011:943-944)
- [4] "La Junta y la Cámara recuperan la Tizona para el patrimonio burgalés." http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diario_de_Burgos May 23, 2007
- [5] "El valor de un icono", Diario de Burgos, Mary 24th 2007
- [6] Cantar de mio Cid. Edition of Alberto Montaner. Ed. Galaxia Gutenberg, 2007.

Colada



Set of swords, Colada is no. 8

Colada is one of the two best-known swords, along with Tizona, of El Cid Campeador. Won in combat from the Count of Barcelona, the sword was presented (along with Tizona) to his sons in law. According to the heroic verses of the Cantar de mio Cid, after his sons-in-law beat his daughters and then abandoned them on the side of the road, El Cid asked his

52.1. SEE ALSO 163

gifts to be returned. Afterward, he bestowed the sword upon one of his knights, Martín Antolínez. *[1]

Though its authenticity is doubted, a blade named *Colada* and traditionally identified with that of El Cid, with the addition of a 16th-century hilt, is preserved in the Royal Palace of Madrid.

According to Sebastián de Covarrubias, *[2] *Colada* clearly means a sword made from "acero *colado*", a process of alloyed steel without impurities.

As Tizona, Colada appears in the epic poem Cantar de mio Cid as a sword that frightens unworthy opponents if wielded by a brave warrior. El Cid gives the sword to Martín Antolínez as a present, and he uses it in the duel against the infante Diego González.

52.1 See also

- Tizona
- El Cid
- Cantar de mio Cid
- Lobera

52.2 Notes

- [1] Cantar de Mio Cid (edition of Alberto Montaner). Barcelona: Crítica, 1993, page 288.
- [2] Sebastián de Covarrubias. Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española, 1611.
- [3] Cantar de mio Cid. Edición de Alberto Montaner. Ed. Galaxia Gutenberg, 2007.

Lobera (sword)



Lobera, sword of Ferdinand III the Saint, Cathedral of Seville.

The sword **Lobera** (Spanish: *la espada lobera*, literally: "the sword wolf-slayer") was the symbol of power used by Saint Ferdinand III of Castile, instead of the more traditional rod, and so the king will be depicted with orb and sword in hand.

53.1 History

Lobera was the sword of Saint Ferdinand III, King of Castile from 1217 and King of León from 1230, He finished the work done by his maternal grandfather Alfonso VIII of Castile and consolidated the Reconquista. In 1231, he permanently united Castile and León. He was considered an exemplary knight in his time. Pope Innocent IV named him "invincible champion of Jesus Christ".

53.2 Etymology

Lobera is a Spanish word meaning wolfslayer.*[1]

53.3 Legend

Don Juan Manuel, Prince of Villena, grandson of King Ferdinand III, wrote in his *Libro de los ejemplos del conde Lucanor y de Patronio* (1337) ("Book of the examples of Count Lucanor and of Patronio"), that Lobera was the sword of Fernán González of Castile (epic hero from the Poem of Fernán González) and a "sword of great virtue" . Don Juan Manuel

53.4. DESCRIPTION 165

writes that King Ferdinand III, lying on his deathbed, addressed him in these words: "I can bequeath no heritage to you, but I bestow upon you my sword Lobera, that is of passing worth, and wherewith God has wrought much good to me." [2]

53.4 Description

Lobera, forged in steel, has a blade of 80 cm. and silver ornaments. It is a relic kept in the Capilla Real at the Seville Cathedral.

53.5 Notes

- [1] http://buscon.rae.es/draeI/SrvltConsulta?TIPO_BUS=3&LEMA=lobero
- [2] Don Juan Manuel. El Conde Lucanor. Barcelona: Losada, 1997.



King Ferdinand III of Castile depicted with Lobera

Amenonuhoko

Amenonuhoko (天沼矛 or 天之瓊矛 or 天瓊戈 "heavenly jewelled spear") is the name given to the spear in Japanese mythology used to raise the primordial land-mass, *Onogoro-shima*, from the sea. It is often represented as a naginata.*[1]

According to the Kojiki, Shinto's genesis gods Izanagi and Izanami were responsible for creating the first land. To help them do this, they were given a spear decorated with jewels, named *Ame-no* (heavenly) *nu-hoko* (jewelled spear), by older heavenly gods.*[2] The two deities then went to the bridge between heaven and earth, *Ame-no-ukihashi* ("floating bridge of heaven"), and churned the sea below with the naginata. When drops of salty water fell from the tip, they formed into the first island, *Onogoro-shima*. Izanagi and Izanami then descended from the bridge of heaven and made their home on the island.*[3]*[4]

54.1 References

- [1] Daniel C. Pauley. Pauley's Guide: A Dictionary of Japanese Martial Arts and Culture. p. 4. ISBN 0615233562.
- [2] Jean Herbert (2010). Shinto: At the Fountainhead of Japan. p. 220. ISBN 0203842162.
- [3] Joseph Jacobs et al (1899). Folk Lore 10. Folklore Society of Great Britain. pp. 298–299.
- [4] D.B. Picken (2004). Sourcebook in Shinto. Greenwood Publishing Group. p. 8. ISBN 0313264325.



Gáe Bulg

The *Gáe Bulg* (also *Gáe Bulga*, *Gáe Bolga*), meaning "spear of mortal pain/death spear", "gapped/notched spear", or "belly spear", was the name of the spear of Cúchulainn in the Ulster Cycle of Irish mythology. It was given to him by his martial arts teacher, the warrior woman Scáthach, and its technique was taught only to him.

It was made from the bone of a sea monster, the Coinchenn, that had died while fighting another sea monster, the Curruid. Although some sources make it out to be simply a particularly deadly spear, others—notably the Book of Leinster—state that it could only be used under very specialized, ritual conditions:

In other versions of the legend, the spear had seven heads, each with seven barbs. In the *Táin Bó Cuailnge*, Cúchulainn received the spear after training with the great warrior master Scáthach in Alba. She taught him and his foster-brother, Ferdiad, everything the same, except she only taught the Gáe Bulg feat to Cuchulainn. He later used it in single combat against Ferdiad. They were fighting in a ford, and Ferdiad had the upper hand; Cúchulainn's charioteer, Láeg, floated the *Gáe Bulg* down the stream to his master, who cast it into Ferdiad's body, piercing the warrior's armor and "coursing through the highways and byways of his body so that every single joint filled with barbs." Ferdiad died soon after. On a separate occasion, Cúchulainn also killed his own son, Connla, with the spear. In both instances, it was used as a last resort, as once thrown it proved invariably fatal.

Cú Chulainn's use of the Gáe Bulg in the *Táin Bó Cuailnge* exemplifies its deadliness and the gruesome nature in which it leaves its victims. This can be seen in the fact that after it is utilized, one must literally cut into the victim to retrieve it. This was the case in Cú Chulainn's slaying of Fer Diad. As it is stated in Ciaran Carson's translation of The Táin:

55.1 Etymology

Traditionally, the name has been translated as "belly spear", with the second element of the name, *bulga*, being treated as a derivative of Old Irish bolg "belly, sack, bag".*[3]

Several notable Celtic scholars, including Joseph Loth and Kuno Meyer, have preferred to derive it rather from Old Irish *bolc* "gap, breach, notch" (cognate with Welsh *bwlch*), suggesting a linguistic link with the second element in the name of Fergus mac Róich's sword, *Caladbolg* and King Arthur's sword *Caledfwlch*.*[4]*[5]*[6]

Linguist Eric Hamp derives the second element, *bulga*, from a Proto-Celtic compound **balu-gaisos* meaning "spear of mortal pain/death spear" (comparable to Old Irish *fogha* "spear, dart", from Proto-Celtic **uo-gaisu-*). Once the second element **gaisos* "spear" was no longer recognizable to Irish speaker, its Old Irish cognate, *gáe*, was reattached to the beginning for clarification, forming a new, tautological compound.*[7]*[8]

55.2 See also

• Gungnir, Odin's similar enchanted spear of Nordic legend

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55.3 References

- [1] The Táin, trans. Thomas Kinsella
- [2] The Táin, trans. Ciaran Carson
- [3] Meyer, Kuno . Contributions to Irish lexicography, Volume 1, M. Niemeyer, 1906. p. 236.
- [4] Loth, Joseph. Les Mabinogion, Volume 1, Thorin, 1889, p. 200.
- [5] Meyer, Kuno . Contributions to Irish lexicography, Volume 1, M. Niemeyer, 1906. p. 236.
- [6] Lewis, Timothy. "Bolg, Fir Bolg, Caladbolg" in Ryan, J. (ed.), Féil-sgríbhinn Eóin Mhic Néill, Dublin, 1940; repr. Four Courts Press 1995, pp. 46-62.
- [7] Hamp, Eric P. "Varia I: 10. at·bail(l), (gaé) bulga", Ériu 24, 1973, pp. 179–182.
- [8] Schrijver, Peter. Studies in british celtic Historical Phonology., Rodopi, 1995, p. 384 (for etymology of Irish fogha).

Gungnir

This article is about the mythological weapon. For the video game, see Gungnir (video game). In Norse mythology, **Gungnir** (Old Norse "swaying one" *[1]) is the spear of the god Odin.

56.1 Attestations

56.1.1 Poetic Edda

According to the Poetic Edda, the spear was fashioned by the Dwarves; Loki discovers the Spear whilst visiting the Dwarves (on an errand to commission golden hair for Sif). Loki flatters the Dwarves and asks the Spear of them, which they give him. In the Poetic Edda poem *Völuspá*, the Æsir-Vanir War is described as officially starting when Odin throws a spear over the heads of an assembly of Vanir gods. Whether or not this was specifically Gungnir is, however, unstated. In *Sigrdrífumál*, the valkyrie Sigrdrífa advises Sigurd on the magical application of runes. She gives Sigurd advice and shares with him lore, including that runes were carved on the tip of Gungnir.

56.1.2 Prose Edda

According to chapter 51 of the Prose Edda book, *Gylfaginning*, Odin will ride in front of the Einherjar while advancing on to the battle field at Ragnarök wearing a gold helmet, an impressive cloak of mail and carrying Gungnir. He will then attack the wolf Fenrir with it.

In *Skáldskaparmál*, more information regarding the spear is presented. The spear was fashioned by the dwarves known as the Sons of Ivaldi under the mastery of the blacksmith dwarf Dvalin. The spear was obtained from the dwarves by Loki, the result of a scheme he concocted as a partial reparation for his cutting of the goddess Sif's hair. The spear is described as being so well balanced that it could strike any target, no matter the skill or strength of the wielder.

56.2 Archaeological record

If the rider on horseback on the image on the Böksta Runestone has been correctly identified as Odin, then Odin is shown carrying Gungnir while hunting an elk.*[2]

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56.3 In the Ring of the Nibelung

In Wagner's opera cycle, *Der Ring des Nibelungen*, Wotan's (Odin's) spear is made from the wood of the world tree Yggdrasil and engraved with the contracts from which Wotan's power derives. He uses the spear to break the sword of Siegmund, leading to Siegmund's death. When he tries to bar the eponymous hero of the opera, *Siegfried* (Siegmund's son), from awakening Brünnhilde from her magic sleep, Siegfried breaks the spear in two and Wotan flees. It is implied that this is also the end of Wotan's power and he never appears onstage again.

56.4 See also

- Bracteate
- Gae Bolga, the Irish legendary hero Cú Chulainn's similar magic spear
- Migration period spear

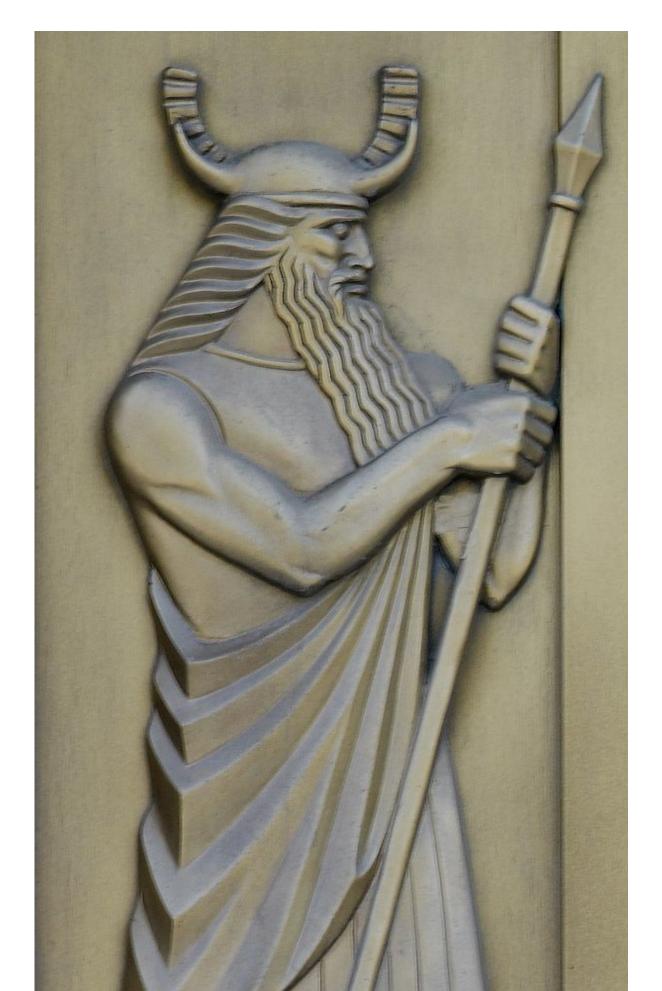
56.5 Notes

- [1] Orchard (1997:67).
- [2] Silén (1993:88-91).

56.6 References

- Orchard, Andy (1997). Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2
- Silén, Lars (1983). "Några Reflektioner Angående Bilderna på Balingsta-Stenen i Uppland". *Fornvännen* (Swedish National Heritage Board) **78**: 88–91. ISSN 1404-9430. Retrieved 2010-01-28.

56.6. REFERENCES 173



Lúin of Celtchar

In the Ulster Cycle of early Irish literature, the *Lúin* of Celtchar (Irish: *Lúin Celtchair*) is the name of a long, fiery lance or spear belonging to Celtchar mac Uthechar and wielded by other heroes, such as Dubthach, Mac Cécht and Fedlimid.

57.1 Properties

Detailed descriptions of the spear's special use and terrible effect are to be found in the Middle Irish texts *Togail Bruidne Dá Derga* ("The Destruction of the Hostel of Da Derga") (Recension II) and *Mesca Ulad* ("The Intoxication of the Ulstermen"), both of which employ the so-called "watchman device" to describe the fearful appearance of the warrior Dubthach Dóeltenga. In *Togail Bruidne Dá Derga*, it appears when the spies of Ingcél Cáech report on Conaire's large retinue of warriors in the hostel of Da Derga in Leinster. Lomnae Drúth observes:

"The man in the centre had a great lance, with fifty rivets through it, and its shaft would be a load for a team of oxen. He brandished the lance until sparks as big as eggs all but flew from it, and then he struck the butt against his palm three times. Before them was a great food cauldron, large enough for a bullock, with an appalling dark liquid in it, and the man dipped the lance into the liquid. If not the lance was not quenched quickly, it blazed up over its shaft – you would have thought there was a roaring fire in the upper part of the house."

The interpreter Fer Rogain identifies the figure as Dubthach Dóeltenga and explains:

"And the lance that was in the hand of Dubthach, that was the Lúin of Celtchair son of Uthechar that was found at the Battle of Mag Tuired. Whenever the blood of enemies is about to flow from the lance, a cauldron full of venom is required to quench it; otherwise, the lance will blaze up in the fist of the man carrying it, and it will pierce him or the lord of the royal house. Each thrust of this lance will kill a man, even if it does not reach him; if the lance is cast, it will kill nine men, and there will be a king or royal heir or plundering chieftain in their number. I swear by what my people swear by, the Lúin of Celtchar will serve drinks of death to a multitude tonight." *[1]

In Mesca Ulad, Medb's watchmen paint a very similar picture when they describe one of the approaching warriors:

"A great warrior, his spear reaches to the height of his shoulder. When its spear-heat seizes it, he strikes the butt of the great spear across the palm, so that the fill of a sack-measure of fiery tinder-sparks bursts out over its blade and over its tip, when its spear-heat takes hold of it. Before him there is a cauldron of black blood, of dreadful liquid, prepared by night by his sorcery from the blood of dogs and cats and druids, in order that the head of that spear might be dipped in that poisonous liquid when its spear-heat comes to it."

57.2. CIRCULATION 175

Cú Roí then explains to Medb and her company that the watchmen have just seen Dubthach, who has borrowed the *Lúin* of Celtchar, and that a cauldron of red blood stands before him "so that it would not burn its shaft or the man who carried it were it not bathed in the cauldron of poisonous blood; and it is foretelling battle that it is." *[2] This latter quality has been taken to mean that such "sensitive spears … by their vibration, portended the imminence of battle and slaughter." *[3]

A late version of the saga *Cath Ruis na Ríg* ("The Battle of Ross na Ríg") gives a more succinct account of the *Luin*, but also adds a number of details, such as the use of four mercenaries to keep the cauldron in place.*[4] Obviously, the weapon needed to be handled with extreme care. According to his death-tale, Celtchar was accidentally killed by his own spear in a way which emphasises its excessive heat. When he had used the *Lúin* to slay a hound which had been ravaging the country, he placed it upright with the spear-point upwards and so a drop of the hound's blood which trickled down along the spear went through him and killed him.*[5]

57.2 Circulation

In the Ulster cycle, Celtchar's *Lúin* is used by various warriors of Ulster and Connacht. Dubthach had use of it (*Togain Bruidne Da Derga* and *Mesca Ulad*, see above quotes), and Dubhthach himself was slain by Fedlimid who wielded Lúin Celtchar according to a notice following the Togail Bruidne Dá Choca(e)*[6]

According to a poem by Cináed ua hArtacáin (d. 975), the Connacht champion Mac Cécht used it to slay Cúscraid Menn, son of Conchobor mac Nessa.*[7]

There is also a tract in TCD MS 1336 (*olim MS* H 3.17), col. 723*[8] which claims that the spear survived into the reign of Cormac mac Airt, and came to be known as the *Crimall* of Birnbuadach*[9] causing Cormac's blinding and rendering him unfit for kingship. Moreover it alleges this was the "Famous yew of the wood", the name by which the spear of Lug mac Eithliu of the Tuatha Dé Danann was called. This tract occurs as a postscript to a later version (B group) of *The Expulsion of the Déisi* found in the same MS,*[10] but is known only by the brief English recap provided by Hennessy.

57.2.1 Spear of Lug?

Arthur C. L. Brown and R. S. Loomis, proponents of the Irish origin of the Grail romances, argued that Celtchar's *Lúin* was to be identified with the spear of Lug,*[11] a weapon which is named in Middle Irish narratives as one of the four items which the Túatha Dé Danann introduced to Ireland. A connection may have been drawn implicitly by *Togail Bruidne Dá Derga*, which claims that the *Lúin* was found in the Battle of Mag Tuired, elsewhere known as the battle in which the Túatha Dé Danann led by Lug defeated the Fomoiri. Moreover, a tale of later date, the Early Modern Irish *Oidheadh Chloinne Tuireann* describes the spear of Lug in ways which are reminiscent of Celtchair's *Lúin*. However, the Middle Irish references to Lug's spear do not correspond closely to the *Lúin*.*[12]

57.3 See also

- Gáe Bulg
- Spear of Destiny

57.4 Notes

- [1] Togail Bruidne Dá Derga, ed. Knott, pp. 37–8; tr. Gantz, p. 97.
- [2] Mesca Ulad § 44, tr. Koch, CHA. p. 120.
- [3] Hennessy, Mesca Ulad. Or, the Intoxication of the Ultonians. xv.
- [4] Cath Ruis na Ríg, ed. and tr. Hogan. p. 78-9.

- [5] Aided Cheltchair mac Uthechair, ed. and tr. Meyer. pp. 30-1
- [6] Stokes, Whitley, ed. tr. "Da Choca's Hostel [Bruiden Da Chocae]", Revue Celtique 21, Notes, p.401. Stokes's notes for§59 says that at this point the B text begins to diverge with the base A text (from TCD H. 3. 18, now MS 1337), and states that at the end of the MS A text (p.724?) there is "a notice .. of the slaying of Dubhtach by Fedlimid with the famous spear called Luin Celtchair".
- [7] Cináed Ua hArtacáin, "Fianna bátar i nEmain", ed. Stokes. p. 308 § 16. Note that O'Curry erroneously reads that it was Cet mac Mágach who slew him. O'Curry, *On the manners and customs of the ancient Irish*, vol. III: p. 325.
- [8] Mesca Ulad, ed. Hennessy, preface, p. xiv.
- [9] This is probably to be equated with *gai buafnech* the "poison spear" nickname of Oengus the blinder of Cormac, as suggested by Hennessy, loc. cit., although T. F. O'Rahilly EIHM, 65 thinks it should be "equated with Loegaire Bern Buadach"
- [10] TCD MS 1336 (*olim* H 3.17), cols. 720b-723a, denoted variant *h* text in Kuno Meyer ed., *Tucait indarba na nDéssi* ("The Expulsion of the Déisi"), *Anecdota from Irish Manuscripts*, vol. i. (1907), pp.15–24. The *h* text bears the variant title *Cóecad Cormaic i Temraig* (Blinding of Cormac at Tara), accord. to Arbois de Jubainville, *Essai d'un catalogue*, p.90
- [11] Loomis, Arthurian tradition. pp. 379–82; Brown, "The Bleeding Lance."
- [12] Carey, Ireland and the Grail. p. 169 note 6.

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57.5.1 Texts

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57.5.2 References

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57.5. SOURCES 177



H.R. Millar's illustration of "Lugh's Magic Spear", 1905.

Tonbogiri

The **Tonbogiri** (蜻蛉切) is one of three legendary Japanese spears created by the famed swordsmith Masazane Fujiwara, said to be wielded by the daimyō Honda Tadakatsu. The spear derives its name from the myth that a dragonfly landed on its blade and was instantly cut in two. Thus Tonbo (Japanese for "dragonfly") and giri (Japanese for "cutting"), translating this spear's name as "Dragonfly Cutter/Cutting spear".

Bident

A **bident** is a two-pronged implement resembling a pitchfork. In classical mythology, the bident is associated with Pluto, the ruler of the underworld, while the three-pronged trident is the implement of Poseidon (Neptune), ruler of the sea and of earthquakes.

59.1 Etymology

The word 'bident' was brought into the English language before 1914,*[1] and is derived from the Latin *bidentis*, meaning "having two prongs".*[2]

59.2 Historical uses

Ancient Egyptians used a bident as a fishing tool, sometimes attached to a line and sometimes fastened with flight feathers.*[3] Two-pronged weapons mainly of bronze appear in the archaeological record of ancient Greece.*[4]

In Roman agriculture, the *bidens* (genitive *bidentis*) was a double-bladed drag hoe*[5] or two-pronged mattock,*[6] although a modern distinction between "mattock" and "rake" should not be pressed.*[7] It was used to break up and turn ground that was rocky and hard.*[8] The *bidens* is pictured on mosaics and other forms of Roman art, as well as tombstones to mark the occupation of the deceased.*[9]

59.3 In mythology

Neither Pluto nor Hades is depicted unambiguously with a bident in ancient art, and the antiquity of this attribute has never been determined.*[10] Two-pronged weapons do appear in Greek literature and art.*[11]

The spear of Achilles is said by a few sources to be bifurcated.*[12] Achilles had been instructed in its use by Peleus, who had in turn learned from Chiron the Centaur. The implement may have associations with Thessaly. A black-figured amphora from Corneto (Etruscan Tarquinia) depicts a scene from the hunt for the Calydonian boar, part of a series of adventures that took place in the general area. Peleus is accompanied by Castor, who is attacking the boar with a two-pronged spear.*[11]

A bronze trident found in an Etruscan tomb at Vetulonia seems to have had an adaptable center prong that could be removed for use as a bident.*[13] A kylix found at Vulci in ancient Etruria was formerly interpreted as depicting Pluto (Greek *Plouton*) with a bident. A black-bearded man holding a peculiarly two-pronged instrument reaches out in pursuit of a woman, thought to be Persephone. The vase was subjected to improper reconstruction, however, and the couple are more likely Poseidon and Aethra.*[14] On Lydian coins that show *Plouton* abducting Persephone in his four-horse chariot,

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Pluto holding a bident in a woodcut from the Gods and Goddesses series of Hendrick Goltzius (1588-89)

59.4. IN ART



Roman-era mosaics show the bident for hare hunting (Villa Romana del Casale, Sicily, ca. 300 AD)

the god holds his characteristic scepter, the ornamented point of which has sometimes been interpreted as a bident.*[15] Other visual representations of the bident on ancient objects appear to have been either modern-era reconstructions, or in the possession of figures not securely identified as the ruler of the underworld.*[16]

The Cambridge ritualist A.B. Cook saw the bident as an implement that might be wielded by Jupiter, the chief god of the Roman pantheon, in relation to Roman bidental ritual, the consecration of a place struck by lightning by means of a sacrificial sheep, called a *bidens* because it was of an age to have two teeth.*[17] In the hands of Jupiter (also known as Jove, Etruscan Tinia), the trident or bident thus represents a forked lightning bolt. In ancient Italy, thunder and lightning were read as signs of divine will, wielded by the sky god Jupiter in three forms or degrees of severity (see *manubia*). The Romans drew on Etruscan traditions for the interpretation of these signs. A tile found at Urbs Salvia in Picenum depicts an unusual composite Jove, "fairly bristling with weapons": a lightning bolt, a bident, and a trident, uniting the realms of sky, earth, and sea, and representing the three degrees of ominous lightning (see also Summanus).*[18] Cook regarded the trident as the Greek equivalent of the Etruscan bident, each representing a type of lightning used to communicate the divine will; since he accepted the Lydian origin of the Etruscans, he traced both forms to the same Mesopotamia source.*[19]

The later notion that the ruler of the underworld wielded a trident or bident can perhaps be traced to a line in the *Hercules Furens* ("Hercules Enraged") of Seneca. Dis (the Roman equivalent of Greek *Plouton*) uses a three-pronged spear to drive off Hercules as he attempts to invade the underworld. Seneca also refers to Dis as the "Infernal Jove" *[20] or the "dire Jove", *[21] the Jove who gives dire or ill omens (*dirae*), just as in the Greek tradition, *Plouton* is sometimes identified as a "chthonic Zeus." That the trident and bident might be somewhat interchangeable is suggested by a Byzantine scholiast, who mentions Poseidon being armed with a bident.*[22]

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Council of the gods from the Loggia di Psiche, Villa Farnesina, with Pluto holding a bident and Neptune a trident

59.4 In art

In Western art of the Middle Ages, classical underworld figures began to be depicted with a pitchfork.*[23] Early Christian writers identified the classical underworld with Hell, and its denizens as demons or devils.*[24] In the Renaissance, the bident became a conventional attribute of Pluto in art. Pluto, with Cerberus at his side, is shown holding the bident in the mythological ceiling mural painted by Raphael's workshop for the Villa Farnesina (the *Loggia di Psiche*, 1517–18). In a scene depicting a council of the gods, the three brothers Jove, Pluto, and Neptune are grouped closely, with a Cupid standing before them. Neptune holds the trident. Elsewhere in the *loggia*, a putto holds a bident.*[25]

Perhaps influenced by this work, Agostino Carracci had depicted Pluto with a bident in a preparatory drawing for his painting *Pluto* (1592), in which the god holds instead his characteristic key.*[26] In Caravaggio's *Giove, Nettuno e Plutone* (ca. 1597), a ceiling mural based on alchemical allegory, it is Neptune who holds the bident.*[27]

59.5 See also

- Aegis
- · Cap of invisibility
- Trident
- Caduceus
- List of mythological objects

59.6 References

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59.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 183

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- [3] Wilkinson, John Gardner (1837). Manners and customs of the ancient Egyptians: including their private life, government, laws, arts, manufacturers, religion and early history: derived from a comparison of the painting, sculptures and monuments still existing with the accounts of ancient authors, Volume 3. Murray. pp. 60, 61. bident was a spear with two barbed points ... thrust at the fish ... fish spears of the South Sea Islanders ... same manner ... as the bident by the ancient Egyptians
- [4] Arthur Bernard Cook, Zeus: A Study in Ancient Religion (Oxford University Press, 1924), vol. 2, p. 799.
- [5] K.D. White, Roman Farming (Cornell University Press, 1970), p. 239.
- [6] K.D. White, Agricultural Implements of the Roman World (Cambridge University Press, 1967, 2010), p. 11.
- [7] White, Agricultural Implements, p. 12.
- [8] Pliny, Natural History 17.54; White, Agricultural Implements, p. 19.
- [9] White, Agricultural Implements, pp. vii, viii, 11, 51.
- [10] A.L. Millin, "Mythologie," in Magasin Encyclopédique (Paris, 1808), p. 283; G.T. Villenave, Les métamorphoses d'Ovide (Paris, 1806), p. 307; Cook, Zeus, p. 798 ff.; John G. Fitch, Seneca's Hercules Furens: A Critical Text With Introduction and Commentary (Cornell University Press, 1987), p.
- [11] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 799.
- [12] By Lesches of Lesbos (7th century BC) in the *Little Iliad (Ilias parva)*, frg. 5 in the edition of Kinkel, as preserved by the scholiast to Pindar, *Nemean Ode* 6.85 and the scholiast to the *Iliad* 16.142. Also in the Classical period by Aeschylus in the fragmentary *Nereids (Nereides)*, frg. 152 in the second edition of Nauck; and by Sophocles in the *Lovers of Achilles (Achilleos erastai)*, frg. 156 (Nauck² = 152 in the edition of Jebb), as cited by Cook, *Zeus*, vol. 2, p. 799.
- [13] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, pt. 2, p. 1225, with images of Zeus wielding lightning bolts, and citing Milani, Studi e materiali di archeologia e numismatica (Florence, 1905), (vol. 3, p. 85.
- [14] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, pp. 800–801. The kylix from the workshop of Brygos.
- [15] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 801.
- [16] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 802.
- [17] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, pp. 805-806.
- [18] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 803, with image on p. 804.
- [19] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 806.
- [20] Inferni Iovis (genitive case), Hercules Furens line 47, in the prologue spoken by Juno.
- [21] Diro Iovi, line 608 of Hercules Furens; compare Vergil, Aeneid 4.638, Iove Stygio, the "Jove of the Styx". Fitch, Seneca's Hercules Furens, p. 156.
- [22] Codex Augustanus, note to Euripides' Phoenician Women, line 188, as cited by Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 806, note 6.
- [23] Cook, Zeus, vol. 2, p. 803.
- [24] Friedrich Solmsen, "The Powers of Darkness in Prudentius' *Contra Symmachum*: A Study of His Poetic Imagination," *Vigiliae Christianae* 19.4 (1965), pp. 238, 240–248 *et passim*.
- [25] Richard Stemp, The Secret Language of the Renaissance: Decoding the Hidden Symbolism of Italian Art (Duncan Baird, 2006), p. 114; Clare Robertson et al., Drawings by the Carracci from British Collections (Ashmolean Museum, 1996), p. 78.
- [26] Robertson et al., Drawings by the Carracci from British Collections, pp. 78–79.
- [27] Creighton Gilbert, Caravaggio and His Two Cardinals (Penn State University Press, 1995), pp. 124–125.

59.7 External links

Media related to Bidents at Wikimedia Commons

Trishula

This article is about the trident. For other uses, see Trishul.

The **trishula** (Sanskrit: রিখুল trisūla, Malay: *trisula*, Telugu: *trisoolam*, Tamil: *thirisulam*, Malayalam: തൃശൂം *trisoolam*, Thai: trisoon or *tri*) is a type of South Asian trident also found in Southeast Asia. It is commonly used as a Hindu-Buddhist religious symbol. The word means "three spear" in Sanskrit and Pali.

In India and Thailand, the term often refers to a short-handled weapon which may be mounted on a danda or staff. But unlike the Okinawan sai, the trishula is often bladed. In Malay, *trisula* usually refers specifically to a long-handled trident while the diminutive version is known as a tekpi.

60.1 Symbolism

The trishula symbolism is polyvalent and rich. The trishula is wielded by the Hindu God Shiva and is said to have been used to sever the original head of Ganesha. Durga also holds trishula, as one of her many weapons. There are many other gods and deities, who hold the weapon trishula. The three points have various meanings and significance, and, common to Hindu religion, have many stories behind them. They are commonly said to represent various trinities—creation, maintenance and destruction, past, present and future, the three guna. When looked upon as a weapon of Shiva, the trishula is said to destroy the three worlds: the physical world, the world of the forefathers (representing culture drawn from the past) and the world of the mind (representing the processes of sensing and acting). The three worlds are supposed to be destroyed by Shiva into a single non-dual plane of existence, that is bliss alone.

In the human body, the trishula also represents the place where the three main nadis, or energy channels (ida, pingala and shushmana) meet at the brow. Shushmana, the central one, continues upward to the 7th chakra, or energy center, while the other two end at the brow, there the 6th chakra is located. The trisula's central point represents Shushmana, and that is why it is longer than the other two, representing ida and pingala.

60.2 Other uses

- Trishula can sometimes also designate the Buddhist symbol of the triratna.
- The Goddess Durga holds a trishula among other weapons and attributes in her hands and amongst her accoutrement, having received celestial weapons from both Shiva and Vishnu.
- In Nepal, the trishula is the election symbol of the Communist Party of Nepal (United Marxist).*[1]
- A similar word, *Trishul*, is the Romani word for 'cross'.
- In Yu-gi-oh! Trishula is a monster that can banish 1 card each from opponent's hand, field and graveyard.

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60.3 Gallery

- Trishula brought as offerings to Guna Devi, near Dharamsala, Himachal Pradesh.
- A seven-pronged trishula on top of Wat Arun, a Buddhist temple, is also known as the "trident of Shiva" *[1]
- Emblem of the Chakri Dynasty, the royal house of Thailand founded in 1782. The emblem of the dynasty consists of the trisula intertwined with the Sudarshana Chakra, another weapon, to create a Chakri.
- The *Hachibushū* Sendan Kendatsuba (or Candana Gandharva) is pictured killing several villains with his trishula in the collection of five paintings *Extermination of Evil*.
- 1. ^ Wat Arun The trident of Shiva extends from the top of each tower.

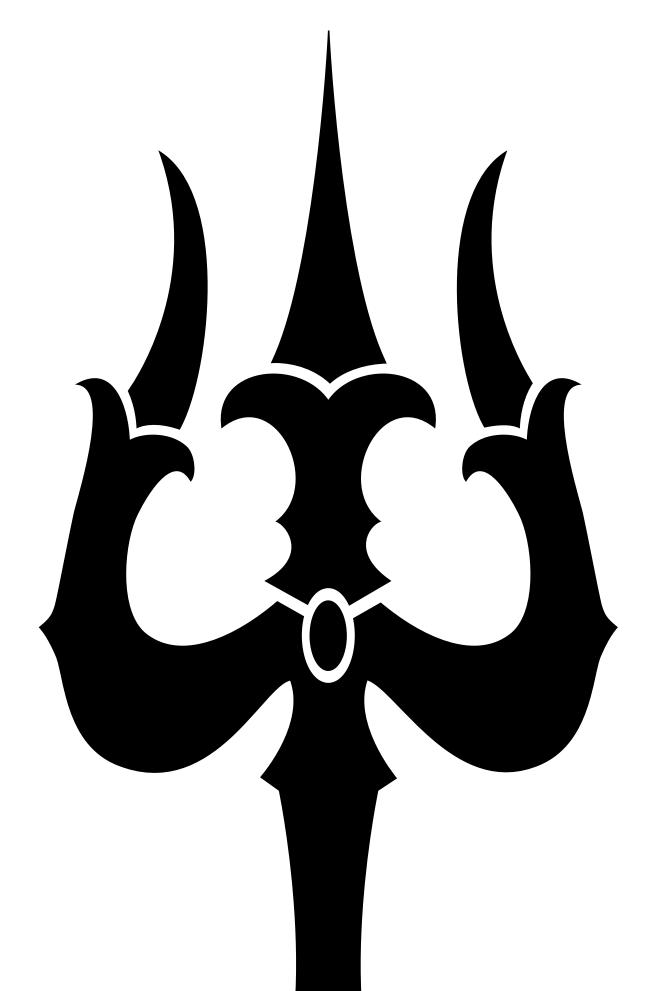
60.4 See also

- Trident
- Tekpi
- Sai (weapon)
- Vajra

60.5 References

[1] पार्टीको सूची —Election Commission of Nepal

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Holy Lance

"Spear of Destiny" redirects here. For other uses, see Spear of Destiny (disambiguation).

The Holy Lance (German: *Heilige Lanze*), also known as the Holy Spear, Spear of Destiny, Lance of Longinus, and Spear of Longinus, is the name given to the lance that pierced the side of Jesus as he hung on the cross, according to the Gospel of John.

61.1 Biblical references

The lance (Greek: $\lambda \acute{o}\gamma \chi \eta$, lonkhē) is mentioned only in the *Gospel of John* (19:31–37) and not in any of the Synoptic Gospels. The gospel states that the Romans planned to break Jesus' legs, a practice known as *crurifragium*, which was a method of hastening death during a crucifixion. Just before they did so, they realized that Jesus was already dead and that there was no reason to break his legs. To make sure that he was dead, a Roman soldier (named in extra-Biblical tradition as Longinus) stabbed him in the side.

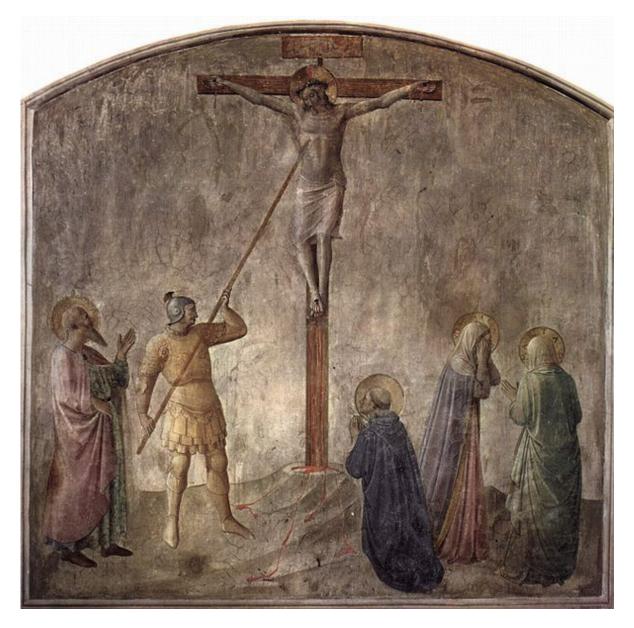
One of the soldiers pierced his side with a lance $(\lambda \acute{o}\gamma \chi \eta)$, and immediately there came out blood and water.

-John 19:34

61.2 Liturgical re-enactments

The phenomenon of blood and water was considered a miracle by Origen. Catholics, while accepting the biological reality of blood and water as emanating from the pierced heart and body cavity of Christ, also acknowledge the allegorical interpretation: it represents one of the main key teachings/mysteries of the Church, and one of the main themes of the Gospel of Matthew, which is the homoousian interpretation adopted by the First Council of Nicaea, that "Jesus Christ was both true God and true man." The blood symbolizes his humanity, the water his divinity. A ceremonial remembrance of this is done when a Catholic priest says Mass: The priest pours a small amount of water into the wine before the consecration, an act which acknowledges Christ's humanity and divinity and recalls the issuance of blood and water from Christ's side on the cross. Saint Faustina Kowalska, a Polish nun whose advocacy and writings led to the establishment of the Divine Mercy devotion, also acknowledged the miraculous nature of the blood and water, explaining that the blood is a symbol of the divine mercy of Christ, while the water is a symbol of His divine compassion and of baptismal waters.

In most variants of the Orthodox Divine Liturgy, the priest lances the host (prosphoron) with a liturgical spear before it is divided in honor of the Trinity, the Theotokos (Virgin Mary), and various other remembrances. The deacon recites the relevant passage from the Gospel of John, along with sections of the Acts of the Apostles dealing with commemoration of the saints. Most of these pieces, set aside, become the antidoron to be distributed after the liturgy, a relic of the



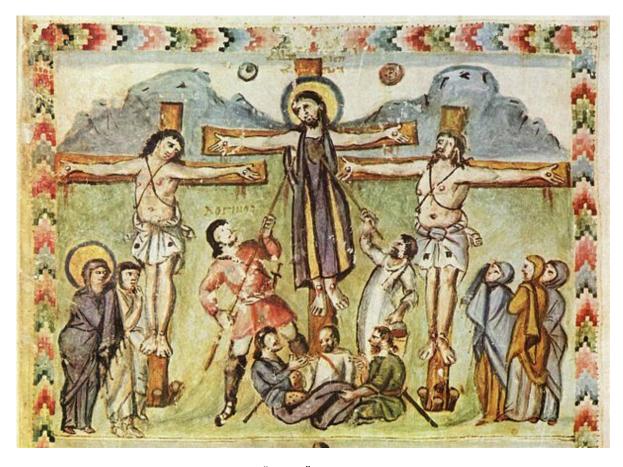
Fresco by Fra Angelico, Dominican monastery at San Marco, Florence, showing the lance piercing the side of Jesus on the cross (c. 1440)

ancient agape of apostolic times, considered to be blessed but not consecrated or sanctified in the Western understanding. The main piece becomes The Lamb, the host that is consecrated on the altar and distributed to the faithful for Holy Communion. For a fuller treatment, see **Lamb** (**liturgy**).

61.3 Longinus

Main article: Saint Longinus

The name of the soldier who pierced Christ's side with a $lonch\bar{e}$ is not given in the Gospel of John, but in the oldest known references to the legend, the apocryphal Gospel of Nicodemus appended to late manuscripts of the 4th century Acts of Pilate, the soldier is identified as a centurion and called Longinus (making the spear's "correct" Latin name $Lancea\ Longini$).



Crucifixion miniature, Rabula Gospels, with the legend "Loginos"

A form of the name Longinus occurs on a miniature in the Rabula Gospels (conserved in the Laurentian Library, Florence), which was illuminated by one Rabulas in the year 586. In the miniature, the name *LOGINOS* (ΛΟΓΙΝΟC) is written in Greek characters above the head of the soldier who is thrusting his lance into Christ's side. This is one of the earliest records of the name, if the inscription is not a later addition.*[1]

61.4 Holy Lance relics

There have been three or four major relics that are claimed to be the Holy Lance or parts of it.

61.4.1 Holy Lance in Rome

The Holy Lance in Rome is preserved beneath the dome of Saint Peter's Basilica, although the Catholic Church makes no claim as to its authenticity. The first historical reference to the lance was made by the pilgrim Antoninus of Piacenza (AD 570) in his descriptions of the holy places of Jerusalem, writing that he saw in the Basilica of Mount Zion "the crown of thorns with which Our Lord was crowned and the lance with which He was struck in the side".*[2] A mention of the lance occurs in the so-called *Breviarius* at the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. The presence in Jerusalem of the relic is attested by Cassiodorus (c. 485–585)*[3]*[4] as well as by Gregory of Tours (c. 538–594), who had not actually been to Jerusalem.

In 615, Jerusalem and its relics were captured by the Persian forces of King Khosrau II (Chosroes II). According to the *Chronicon Paschale*, the point of the lance, which had been broken off, was given in the same year to Nicetas, who took it to Constantinople and deposited it in the church of Hagia Sophia, and later to the Church of the Virgin of the Pharos.

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A mitred Adhémar de Monteil carrying one of the instances of the Holy Lance in one of the battles of the First Crusade

This point of the lance, which was now set in an icon, was acquired by the Latin Emperor, Baldwin II of Constantinople, who later sold it to Louis IX of France. The point of the lance was then enshrined with the Crown of Thorns in the Sainte Chapelle in Paris. During the French Revolution these relics were removed to the Bibliothèque Nationale but subsequently disappeared.*[5] (The present "Crown of Thorns" is a wreath of rushes.)

As for the larger portion of the lance, Arculpus claimed he saw it at the Church of the Holy Sepulchre around 670

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The statue of St Longinus by Gianlorenzo Bernini sits above the relic in St Peter's Basilica

in Jerusalem, but there is otherwise no mention of it after the sack in 615. Some claim that the larger relic had been conveyed to Constantinople in the 8th century, possibly at the same time as the Crown of Thorns. At any rate, its presence at Constantinople seems to be clearly attested by various pilgrims, particularly Russians, and, though it was deposited in various churches in succession, it seems possible to trace it and distinguish it from the relic of the point. Sir John Mandeville declared in 1357 that he had seen the blade of the Holy Lance both at Paris *and* at Constantinople, and that the latter was a much larger relic than the former; it is worth adding that Mandeville is not generally regarded as one of the Middle Ages' most reliable witnesses, and his supposed travels are usually treated as an eclectic amalgam of myths, legends and other fictions. "The lance which pierced Our Lord's side" was among the relics at Constantinople shown in the 1430s to Pedro Tafur, who added "God grant that in the overthrow of the Greeks they have not fallen into the hands of the enemies of the Faith, for they will have been ill-treated and handled with little reverence." *[6]

Whatever the Constantinople relic was, it did fall into the hands of the Turks, and in 1492, under circumstances minutely described in Pastor's *History of the Popes*, the Sultan Bayezid II sent it to Pope Innocent VIII to encourage the pope to continue to keep his brother and rival Zizim (Cem Sultan) prisoner. At this time great doubts as to its authenticity were felt at Rome, as Johann Burchard records, *[7] because of the presence of other rival lances in Paris (the point that had been separated from the lance), Nuremberg (see Holy Lance in Vienna below), and Armenia (see Holy Lance in Echmiadzin below). In the mid-18th century Pope Benedict XIV states that he obtained from Paris an exact drawing of the point of the lance, and that in comparing it with the larger relic in St. Peter's he was satisfied that the two had originally formed one blade. *[8] This relic has never since left Rome, and its resting place is at Saint Peter's.

61.4.2 Holy Lance in Vienna

The Holy Lance in Vienna is displayed in the Imperial Treasury at the Hofburg Palace in Vienna, Austria. In the tenth century, the Holy Roman Emperors came into possession of the lance, according to sources from the time of Otto I (912–973). In 1000, Otto III gave Boleslaw I of Poland a replica of the Holy Lance at the Congress of Gniezno. In 1084, Henry IV had a silver band with the inscription "Nail of Our Lord" added to it. This was based on the belief that this was the lance of Constantine the Great which enshrined a nail used for the Crucifixion.

In 1273, the Holy Lance was first used in the coronation ceremony. Around 1350, Charles IV had a golden sleeve put over the silver one, inscribed *Lancea et clavus Domini* (*Lance and nail of the Lord*). In 1424, Sigismund had a collection of relics, including the lance, moved from his capital in Prague to his birthplace, Nuremberg, and decreed them to be kept there forever. This collection was called the Imperial Regalia (*Reichskleinodien*).

When the French Revolutionary army approached Nuremberg in the spring of 1796 the city councilors decided to remove the *Reichskleinodien* to Vienna for safe keeping. The collection was entrusted to one "Baron von Hügel", who promised to return the objects as soon as peace had been restored and the safety of the collection assured. However, the Holy Roman Empire was disbanded in 1806 and the *Reichskleinodien* remained in the keeping of the Habsburgs. When the city councilors asked for the *Reichskleinodien* back, they were refused. As part of the imperial regalia it was kept in the Imperial Treasury and was known as the lance of Saint Maurice.

During the Anschluss, when Austria was annexed to Germany, the *Reichskleinodien* were returned to Nuremberg and afterwards hidden. They were found by invading U.S. troops and returned to Austria by American General George S. Patton after World War II.

Dr. Robert Feather, an English metallurgist and technical engineering writer, tested the lance for a documentary in January 2003.*[9] He was given unprecedented permission not only to examine the lance in a laboratory environment, but was allowed to remove the delicate bands of gold and silver that hold it together. In the opinion of Feather and other academic experts, the likeliest date of the spearhead is the 7th century A.D. – only slightly earlier than the Museum's own estimate. However, Dr. Feather stated in the same documentary that an iron pin – long claimed to be a nail from the crucifixion, hammered into the blade and set off by tiny brass crosses – is "consistent" in length and shape with a 1st-century A.D. Roman nail. According to Paul the Deacon, the Lombard royal line bore the name of the Gungingi,*[10] which Karl Hauck*[11] and Stefano Gasparri*[12] maintain identified them with the name of Odin's lance, Gungnir (a sign that they probably claimed descent from Odin, as did most of the Germanic royal lines). Paul the Deacon notes*[13] that the inauguration rite of a Lombard king consisted essentially of his grasping of a sacred/royal lance. Milan, which had been the capital of the Western Roman Empire in the time of Constantine, was the capital of the Lombard kings Perctarit and his son Cunipert, who became Catholic Christians in the 7th century. Thus it seems possible that the iron point of the

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Lombardic royal lance might have been recast in the 7th century in order to enshrine one of the 1st-century Roman nails that St. Helena was reputed to have found at Calvary and brought to Milan, thus giving a new Christian sacred aura to the old pagan royal lance. If Charlemagne's inauguration as the King of the Lombards in 774 had likewise included his grasping of this now-Christianized sacred or royal lance, this would explain how it would have eventually become the oldest item in the German imperial regalia. The Iron Crown of Lombardy (dated to the 8th century), which eventually became the primary symbol of Lombardic kingship, takes its name from the tradition that it contains one of the holy nails. Gregory of Tours in his *Libri Historiarum* VII, 33, states that in 585 the Merovingian king Guntram designated his nephew Childebert II his heir by handing him his lance; it is possible that a royal lance was a symbol of kingship among the Merovingian kings and that a nail from Calvary was in the 7th century incorporated into this royal lance and thus eventually would have come into the German imperial regalia.

61.4.3 Holy Lance in Echmiadzin

The Holy Lance in Echmiadzin (Armenian: Geghard) is conserved in Vagharshapat, Armenia (Echmiadzin), the religious capital of the country. The first source that mentions it is a text *Holy Relics of Our Lord Jesus Christ*, in a thirteenth-century Armenian manuscript. According to this text, the spear which pierced Jesus was to have been brought to Armenia by the Apostle Thaddeus. The manuscript does not specify precisely where it was kept, but the Holy Lance gives a description that exactly matches the lance, the monastery gate, since the thirteenth century precisely, the name of Geghardavank (Monastery of the Holy Lance).

In 1655, the French traveler Jean-Baptiste Tavernier was the first Westerner to see this relic in Armenia. In 1805, the Russians captured the monastery and the relic was moved to Tchitchanov Geghard, Tbilisi, Georgia. It was later returned to Armenia at Echmiadzin, where it is always visible in the museum Manoogian, enshrined in a 17th-century reliquary.

61.4.4 Holy Lance of Antioch

During the June 1098 Siege of Antioch, a poor monk named Peter Bartholomew reported that he had a vision in which St. Andrew told him that the Holy Lance was buried in the Church of St. Peter in Antioch. After much digging in the cathedral, Peter apparently discovered a lance. Despite the doubts of many, including the papal legate Adhemar of Le Puy, the discovery of the Holy Lance of Antioch inspired the starving Crusaders to break the siege and secure the city.* [14]

61.4.5 Other lances

Another lance has been preserved at Krakow, Poland, since at least the 13th century. However, German records indicate that it was a copy of the Vienna lance. Emperor Henry II had it made with a small sliver of the original lance. Another copy was given to the Hungarian king at the same time.

The story told by William of Malmesbury of the giving of the Holy Lance to King Athelstan of England by Hugh Capet seems to be due to a misconception.

61.5 Modern legends

61.5.1 Richard Wagner

In his opera *Parsifal*, Richard Wagner identifies the Holy Spear with two items that appear in Wolfram von Eschenbach's medieval poem *Parzival*, a bleeding spear in the Castle of the Grail and the spear that has wounded the Fisher King. The opera's plot concerns the consequences of the spear's loss by the Knights of the Grail and its recovery by Parsifal. Having decided that the blood on the Spear was that of the wounded Saviour – Christ is never named in the opera – Wagner has the blood manifest itself in the Grail rather than on the spearhead.*[15]

61.5.2 Trevor Ravenscroft

The "Spear of Destiny" is a name given to the Holy Lance in various accounts that attribute mystical powers to it. Many of these have originated in recent times, and several popular New Age and conspiracy theory books have popularized the legend of the Spear.

Trevor Ravenscroft's 1973 book, *The Spear of Destiny**[16] (as well as a later book, *The Mark of the Beast**[17]), claims that Adolf Hitler started World War II in order to capture the spear, with which he was obsessed. At the end of the war the spear came into the hands of US General George S. Patton. According to legend, losing the spear would result in death, and that was fulfilled when Hitler committed suicide and Patton died in a car accident in an army camp.*[18]

Ravenscroft repeatedly attempted to define the mysterious "powers" that the legend says the spear serves. He found it to be a hostile and evil spirit, which he sometimes referred to as the Antichrist, though that is open to interpretation. He never actually referred to the spear as spiritually controlled, but rather as intertwined with all of mankind's ambitions.

61.5.3 Howard Buechner

Dr. Howard A. Buechner, M.D., professor of medicine at Tulane and then Louisiana State University, wrote two books on the spear.*[19]*[20] Buechner was a retired colonel with the U.S. Army who served in World War II and had written a book about the Dachau massacre. He claims he was contacted by a former U-boat submariner, the pseudonymous "Capt. Wilhelm Bernhart", who claimed the spear currently on display in Vienna is a fake. "Bernhart" said the real spear was sent by Hitler to Antarctica along with other Nazi treasures, under the command of Col. Maximilian Hartmann. In 1979 Hartmann allegedly recovered the treasures. Bernhart presented Buechner with the log from this expedition as well as pictures of the objects recovered, claiming that after the Spear of Destiny was recovered, it was hidden somewhere in Europe by a Nazi secret society. After contacting most of the members of the alleged expedition and others involved, including Hitler Youth Leader Artur Axmann, Buechner became convinced the claims were true.

61.6 In popular culture

- In DC Comics continuity, Hitler possessed the Spear, which he used to prevent any superhero from interfering in World War II. The Spear creates a zone of influence surrounding Hitler, and any superhero who ventures into this zone is vulnerable to Hitler's control.
- The Spear features in a prequel to Wolfenstein 3D called Wolfenstein 3D: Spear of Destiny (1992).
- During the second season of the TNT television series *Witchblade*, the second episode, "Destiny," involves Kenneth Irons procuring the Longinus Lance in an effort to defeat Sara Pezzini and the Witchblade in combat (2002).
- *Indiana Jones and The Spear of Destiny* is a four-issue comic book mini-series published by Dark Horse Comics from April to July 1995. Action takes place primarily in the United Kingdom and Ireland in 1945, and involves a supernatural spear tip and Irish authoritarian nationalist Blueshirts in league with Nazis.
- The lance appears in the Guillermo del Toro feature film *Hellboy* (2004).
- The Spear is a main artifact in the movie *The Librarian: Quest for the Spear* (2004).
- The Spear is a major item in the film *Constantine* (2005).
- The Spear of Destiny appeared in the 2008–2009 DC Comics limited series *Final Crisis: Revelations*, in which it is used to identify Vandal Savage as the host of Cain. Cain takes up the spear and uses it to enslave the Spectre.
- Finding the "Lanza del Destino" from clues hidden in Picasso's painting, Guernica, is the goal of the characters in the novel Agentes secretos y el mural de Picasso by Mira Canion (2010).
- The TV series *Brad Meltzer's Decoded* featured an episode about the Spear (Season 2 Episode 5, original air date November 16, 2011), titled "The Spear of Destiny."

- The spear appears as a main plot device in medieval mystery author Jeri Westerson's fifth Crispin Guest novel, Blood Lance (2012). *[21]
- The artifact used by Alexander Anderson to fight Alucard in *Hellsing Ultimate* OVA VIII is The Nail of Helena. The Lance of Longinus is mentioned by Alucard along with The Shroud of Turin, and The Holy Grail.
- The episode "I Am Legion" of the television show *Justice League Unlimited* depicts the Spear kept in a secret military bunker on Blackhawk Island. It is stolen by a group of supervillains and given to Gorilla Grodd, who plans to use it as a wall ornament.
- The Spear appears in the seventh and eighth episodes of season 3 of *The Borgias*. The Spear of Longinus is a relic preserved by Jewish merchants who have fled from Constantinople to Rome, and is accepted as authentic by Pope Alexander VI. The Pope plans to use it to attract pilgrims to the Jubilee of 1500 in order to fill church coffers.
- The Lance of Longinus is a recurring item in the anime series *Neon Genesis Evangelion* and related media. In the series, the Lance is a weapon that can disable beings of near-divine power.
- The lance appears as the "True Longinus," one of the Thirteen Longinus gears, in the light novel *High School DxD*.
- The search for and recovery of the true lance is a recurring theme in the *The Hammer and the Cross* series of novels by Harry Harrison.
- The Holy Lance is a major plot point in the video game *Persona 2: Innocent Sin*.
- The Spear appears briefly in the eighth season of the TV series *Supernatural*, when Dean finds the Spear of Destiny with other artifacts in the Men of Letters base.
- The Spear appears simply as "Longinus" in the *Final Fantasy* series, where it is a recurring weapon.
- It is stated in the movie *Fullmetal Alchemist the Movie: Conqueror of Shamballa* that the spears used to hold down the homunculus Envy are made from the reunified fragments of the Spear.
- The Spear of Destiny appears in the Vendettas campaign of the video game *The Darkness II*, in which the Brotherhood tries to procure the Spear of Destiny in an attempt to kill Jackie with it.
- The Spear of Destiny appears in the episode "The Legend of the Kuro Kabuto" of *Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles* as part of Steranko's collection of stolen valuables.
- The Spear of Destiny appears as one of five Holy Relics in the Armory of Hades at the end of *Skin Game*, the fifteenth book in the *Dresden Files* supernatural mystery series.
- The legend of the lance, and the Roman soldier who allegedly used it (who is also cursed to live and fight until the return of Jesus), is the basis of *Casca*, a series of paperback and e-book military-science fiction works.
- The Spear appears in season 4 of television series *The Unit*, in an episode named "The Spear of Destiny."
- The Spear appears in the Starz television series *Da Vinci's Demons*, Season 1, Episode 7 in the episode titled, "The Hierophant". The Spear was stored in the Vatican archives vault with other relics such as the Arc of the Covenant, Excalibur, and a dinosaur or dragon's skull. Pope Sixtus IV tells Leonardo da Vinci that whomever wields the Spear of Destiny can defeat any enemy. Da Vinci later uses the spear in his escape from the Vatican and the spear is able to destroy other weapons and impale armor and rock. The spear radiates heat when da Vinci is harnessing its supernatural powers.

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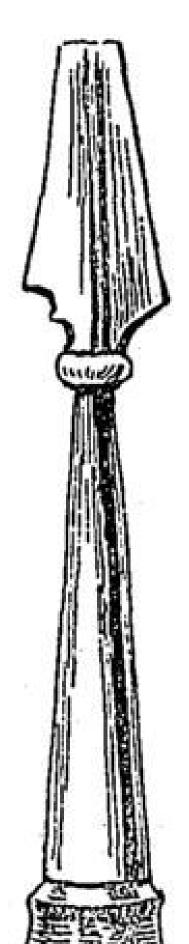
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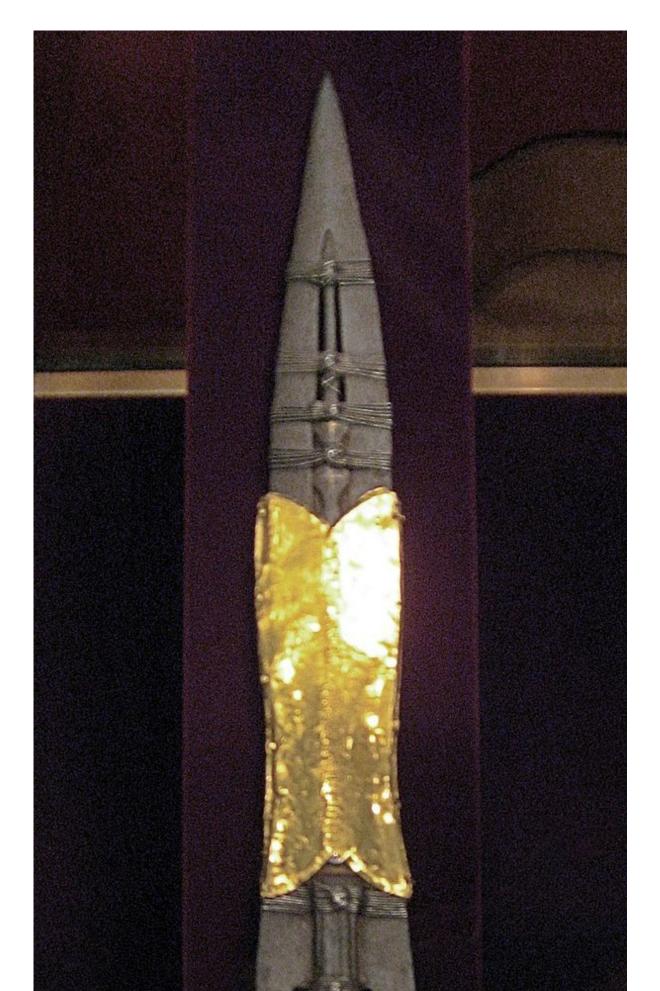
61.9 External links

• Piercing an Ancient Tale - An article by Maryann Bird in the European Edition of *TIME* magazine on British metallurgist Robert Feather's scientific examination of the Spear in Vienna.

CHAPTER 61. HOLY LANCE



61.9. EXTERNAL LINKS



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The inscription on the Holy Lance

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The Holy Lance in Echmiadzin

Vel

This article is about a divine entity in Hinduism. For other uses, see Vel (disambiguation).

Vel (Tamil: ഫേർ) is a divine javelin (spear) associated with Hindu war god Karthikeya. Spears used by ancient Tamils in warfare was also commonly referred by this name.

62.1 Hindu Mythology

According to Hindu mythology, Goddess Parvati presented the Vel to her son Murugan as an embodiment of her shakti or power in order to vanquish the evil asura Soorapadman. According to the Skanda Purana, in the war between Murugan and Soorapadman, Murugan used the Vel to defeat all the evil forces of Soorapadman. When a complete defeat for Soorapadman was imminent, the asura transformed himself into a huge mango tree to evade detection by Murugan. Murugan hurled his Vel and split the mango tree into two halves, one becoming Seval (a rooster) and the other Mayil (a peacock). Henceforth, the peacock became his vahana or mount and the rooster became the emblem on his battle flag.

Vel, as a symbol of divinity, is an object of worship in the temples dedicated to Murugan. The annual Thaipusam festival celebrates the occasion when Murugan received the divine Vel from his mother. During this festival, some of the devotees pierce their skin, tongue or cheeks with vel skewers while they undertake a procession towards the Murugan temple.

62.2 As a weapon

The Vel was extensively used by the Hindus as a weapon*[1] "Vetrivel! Veeravel!" ("Victorious Vel, Courageous Vel") was a commonly used battle cry in ancient Tamil Nadu.

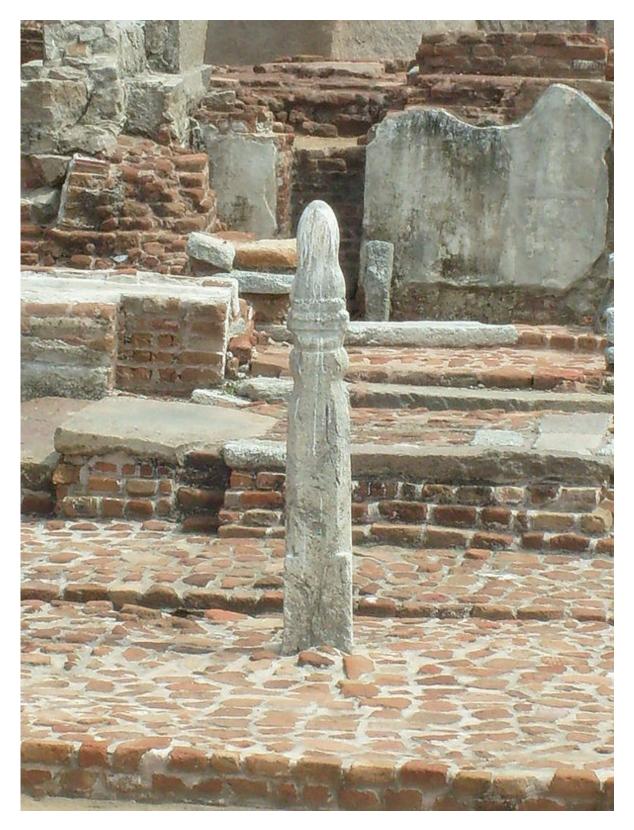
62.3 See also

Trishula

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62.4. REFERENCES 203



Stone vel from the Sangam period, Saluvankuppam near Mahabalipuram

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Karttikeya with Vel and Seval (rooster), coin of the Yaudheyas 200 BCE.

62.5 External links

- Vel Worship in Sri Lanka
- Vel Meaning & Definition

Vijaya (bow)

Vijaya or Vijaya dhanush was the bow of Karna, one of the greatest hero of the Hindu epic, Mahabharata. The bow was created by Vishvakarman for Indra who gifted the bow to Parshurama and later Parshurama gave Vijaya to his student Karna, who already had terriffic skill, making him virtually invincible.

63.1 Creation

The bow Vijaya was specially made by Vishvakarman for Indra, the king of the Devas out of desire to do something agreeable to Indra. Indra used the bow to fight against the Asuras and killed many of them. The Asuras feared the bow due to the destruction it caused whenever it was used. The bow is said to be respected by all beings in the universe.

63.2 Parshurama receives Vijaya from Indra

The bow was gifted by Indra to Parshurama for the task of killing all the evil people in the world. By the fatal arrows shot with the help of this bow 'Vijaya', Parashurama destroyed the war-mongering Kshatriyas twenty one times. Later Parashurama gave the bow to his disciple Karna when he was pleased with Karna's intense devotion towards him.

63.3 Karna and Vijaya bow

Since Parshurama only taught Brahmins the art of warfare, Karna disguised himself as a Brahmin to become his student. One day towards the end of his training Karna offered his lap to his guru to rest his head for taking a nap. While Parshurama was sleeping a bee stung Karna's thigh,however in spite of the pain Karna did not move so as not to disturb his guru's sleep. When blood oozed from his wound and reached Parshurama,he woke up and at once deduced that Karna was not a Brahmin but a Kshatriya. He cursed Karna to forget the mantra to invoke Brahmastra at the time of his greatest need. But when Karna told him he was a Sūta not a Kshatriya and pleaded with him to forgive him, Parshurama relented. Since Karna was a diligent and worthy student Parashurama blessed Karna and gifted him a unique and most powerful celestial weapon, which nobody else possessed called Bhargavastra and his personal bow called Vijaya. The Bhargavastra along with Vijaya and Karna's own divine armor and earrings made Karna one of the most fearsome and powerful warrior in the universe. Karna used the Vijaya bow only once in his life during the Kurukshetra war.

Knowing Karna's might, Krishna on the 16th day warned Arjuna not to underestimate Karna:

With this bow Karna overpowered Arjuna on the 16th day of the Kurukshetra war. Realising that Karna with the Vijaya bow is invincible, on the 17th day Krishna advised Arjuna to kill Karna, who had relinquished his bow and was busy trying to lift his sunken chariot wheel (which was the result of an earlier curse given by a Brahmin that he would become helpless during his end time like the cow he had mistakenly killed).

63.4 Features of Vijaya bow

The string of this bow cannot be broken by any kind of astra's or any divine weapon. Every time an arrow is released from this bow, it created a terrible twang, which is said to be loud as the thunder causing terrible fear on enemies and produces flashes of light, brilliant as lightning, which blinds the enemy. This bow cannot be broken by any weapons or anyone and it is so heavy that a normal person cannot even lift it. Every time an arrow is aimed, the energy of the arrow is amplified by multiple times as this bow is charged with sacred mantras. *[1]*[2]

63.5 References

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Brahmastra

In ancient Sanskrit writings, the **Brahmastra** (Sanskrit: ब्रह्मास्त्र, IAST: Brahmāstra) was a weapon created by Brahma, along with its more powerful versions like Brahmashirsha astra and Brahmanda astra. Brahmastra and Brahmashirsha astra are said to be mythical equivalent of modern day atomic weapons, nuclear and thermonuclear bombs respectively.

64.1 Features

As described in a number of Purana, it was considered as a very destructive weapon. It is said that when the Brahmastra was discharged, there was neither a counterattack nor a defense that could stop it, except by a Brahmastra or Brahmashirsha astra or a Brahmanda astra. The Mahabharata epic narrates that during the Kurukshetra war, Karna neutralised a Brahmastra discharged by Arjuna with an equal Brahmastra and the destruction caused by the colliding of this astra's was catastrophic. The Brahmastra never missed its mark and had to be used with very specific intent against an individual enemy or army, as the target would face complete annihilation. It was believed to be obtained by meditating on the Lord Brahma or from a Guru who knows it and it could only be used once in a day. The user would have to display immense amounts of mental concentration. According to ancient Sanskrit writings, the Brahmastra is invoked by a key phrase or invocation that is bestowed upon the user when given this weapon. Through this invocation the user can call upon the weapon and use it via a medium against his adversary. It is said that the weapon manifests with the single head of Lord Brahma as its tip.

Since Brahma is considered the Creator in Sanatana Dharma, it is believed by Hindus that Brahmastra was created by him for the purpose of upholding Dharma and Satya, to be used by anyone who wished to destroy an enemy who would also happen to be a part of his (Brahma's) creation. The target, when hit by Brahmastra, would be utterly destroyed. In the Mahabharata era Parasurama, Bhishma, Drona, Karna, Kripa, Ashwatthama, Arjuna and few Maharathis possessed the knowledge to invoke Brahmastra weapon.*[1]

The weapon was also believed to cause severe environmental damage. The land where the weapon was used became barren and all life in and around that area ceased to exist, as both men and women became infertile. There was also a severe decrease in rainfall with the land developing cracks, like in a drought. The Brahmastra is mentioned in the epics and vedas as a weapon of last resort and was never to be used in combat.

The brahmastra, described in the Mahabharata, is a weapon which is said to be a single projectile charged with all the power of the universe. It is considered equivalent to modern day atom bomb. In Hindu Puranas after a Brahmastra is used, the event is described as "An incandescent column of smoke and flame as bright as ten thousand suns rose in all its splendor: it was an unknown weapon, an iron thunderbolt, a gigantic messenger of death, which reduced to ashes the entire race of the Vrishnis and the Andhakas…the corpses were so burned as to be unrecognizable. Their hair and nails fell out; pottery broke without apparent cause, and the birds turned white. After a few hours all foodstuffs were infected …to escape from this fire the soldiers threw themselves in streams to wash themselves and their equipment."

Components of Brahmastra: According to the Ramayana this astra "contains air, fire and cosmic poison, two goat-like fangs full of poison, weighty, emits air containing mercury, is fiery, sparkling sky is filled with air, enemy killing greatly

radiant and it is projected with three hymns with the Gayatri mantra at the centre. This was given to Sri Ram by the great Rishi Viswamamitra (-Reference: valmikiramayan.net/bala/sarga27/bala-27-frame.htm)

64.2 Modern day Nuclear weapon and Brahmastra

Robert Oppenheimer (1904-1967) was a scientist, philosopher, bohemian, radical, a connoisseur of ancient Sanskrit literature, theoretical physicist and the supervising scientist of the Manhattan Project, and most importantly, a developer of the atomic bomb. Seven years after the first successful atom bomb test in New Mexico (Trinity), Dr. Oppenheimer was giving a lecture at Rochester University. To the question "Was the bomb exploded at Alamogordo during the Manhattan project the first one to be detonated?" he gave a strange reply "Well—yes. In modern times, of course." And as for Oppenheimer's first words after the detonation of the bomb he quoted from Hindu epic Mahabharata, "If the radiance of a thousand suns were to burst at once into the sky, that would be like the splendor of the mighty one. Now, I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds." (Bhagavad Gita)

Most people agree that no human civilization before us had knowledge of atomic energy and its by-products. The atomic bomb is something completely novel to modern science. Nevertheless, in Vedic literature descriptions of weapons are found that had vaguely similar effects as modern atomic bombs.

64.3 Uses

There are numerous instances within Sanskrit scriptures where the Brahmastra is used or its use is threatened, including:

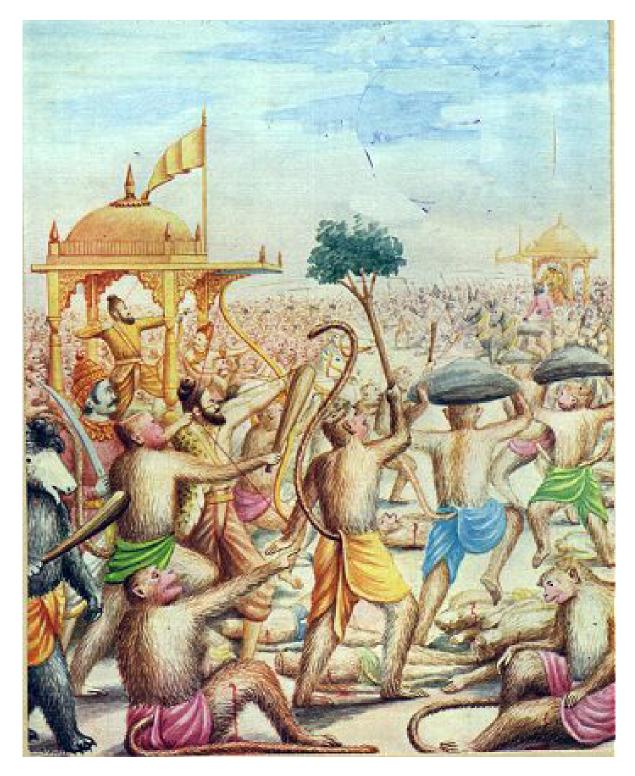
- Vishvamitra used it against Vasishta, but the Brahmastra was swallowed by *Brahmadanda*, Lord Brahma's countermeasure against the Brahmastra.
- In the Ramayana a Brahmastra is used by Shri Rama several times: once against Jayanta (Indra's son) when he hurt Sita, against Mareecha in their last encounter, against the Ocean when he did not answer his prayer to allow his army and himself to cross over to Lanka and finally in the last battle with Ravana. Also, Indrajit used Brahmastra against Hanuman, but Hanuman survived because of Lord Brahma's boon, when he was destroying the Ashok Vatika after meeting Sita.
- It is also mentioned in the Vedas that a Brahmastra was aimed by Shri Rama to carve a path out of the sea so that the army of apes could march towards Lanka, however at that moment, Varuna appeared and told Lord Rama about the technical flaws of using the weapon and hence it was later aimed towards Dhrumatulya by Lord Rama, which fell at the place of modern day Rajasthan causing it to become a desert. Also Indrajit aimed a Bhramastra at Lord Lakshman on the final battle between him and Lord Lakshman, however the deadly weapon returned because Lakshman himself was the avatar of Trinity.

64.3.1 Brahmashirsha Astra

Capable of killing devas. It is recorded in the Mahabharata that Ashwatthama and Arjun used this weapon each other. It is thought that the Brahmashirsha astra is the evolution of the Brahmastra, 4 times stronger than the Brahmastra. It is similar to modern day hydrogen bombs or thermonuclear (fusion) bombs. In the epic Mahabharata, it is said that the weapon would manifest with the four heads of Lord Brahma as its tip. In the Mahabharata era Parasurama, Bhishma, Drona, Karna, Ashwatthama, Arjuna possessed the knowledge to invoke this weapon. This astra can be invoked by using sacred mantras onto any object, even to a blade of grass.

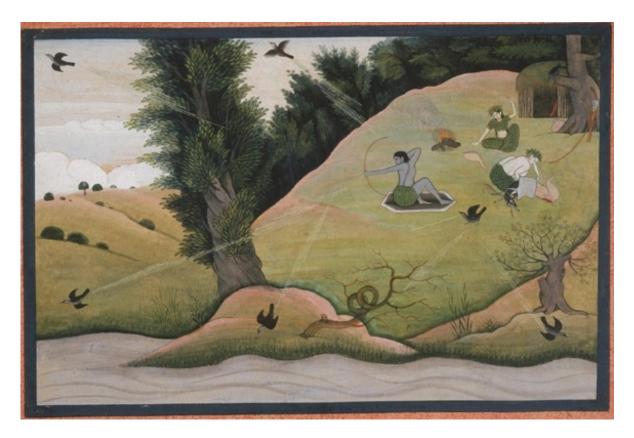
In the Mahabharata, it is explained that when this weapon is invoked "it blazes up with terrible flames within a huge sphere of fire. Numerous peals of thunder were heard; thousands of meteors fell; and all living creatures became filled with great dread. The entire welkin seemed to be filled with noise and assumed a terrible aspect with those flames of fire. The whole earth with her mountains and waters and trees, trembled." When it strikes an area it will cause complete

64.3. USES 209



Killing of Ravana Painting by Balasaheb Pant Pratinidhi

destruction and nothing will grow, not even a blade of grass for next 12 years. It will not rain for 12 years in that area and everything including metal or earth would be poisoned.



Rama Pursues Kakasura with a Magical Grass-Arrow

64.3.2 Brahmanda Astra

In the Mahabharata epic, it is said that the weapon manifests with all the five heads of Lord Brahma as its tip. Brahma earlier lost his fifth head when he fought with Lord Shiva. This weapon, Brahmanda astra is said to possess the power to destroy the entire solar system or Brahmand, the 14 realms according to Hindu cosmology. In the Mahabharata era Parasurama, Bhishma, Drona, Karna possessed the knowledge to invoke this weapon. Later Parashurama, who had sworn to teach Brahmins only, laid a curse upon Karna because he lied about his real identity, that he would forget all the knowledge required to wield the divine weapon Brahmanda astra, at the moment of his greatest need when fighting with an equal. Upon Karna's pleading, Parshurama gave him the celestial weapon called Bhargavastra, equivalent to Brahmastra but one that cannot be countered by any astra along with his personal bow called Vijaya, for being such a diligent student. When this weapon is invoked, events similar to invoking Brahmastra and Brahmashirsha astra take place. As recorded in Hindu puranas, when this weapon is invoked it will cause "the oceans to boil due to its heat and earth and mountains will float on the air and everything will burn without even leaving ashes" . When this weapon is used for defensive purposes or as a counter to Brahmastra and Brahmashirsha astra it will swallow the above said astras and neutralize it. When this astra is used for offensive purpose nothing can stop or escape from it. Guru Drona possessed the knowledge about this weapon and he never gave it to his son Ashwathama and his favorite student Arjuna. During the Mahabharata war, Drona invoked this weapon to use it against the Pandava army but due to the request of Gods and ancestors Drona revoked this weapon because it would completely annihilate the Pandava army who were fighting on the side of righteousness.

64.4 See also

- History of India
- Sanskrit Epics

64.5. REFERENCES 211

- Ramayana
- Mahabharata
- Puranas

64.5 References

- [1] www.sacred-texts.com
- http://www.sacred-texts.com/hin/m05/m05146.htm

Gandiva

The **Gandiv** (IAST: Gāṇḍīv; Sanskrit: गाण्डीव) is the bow^{*}[1] of Arjuna, the hero of the Hindu epic *Mahabharata*.

The bow was created by Brahma, the Creator of universe, the supreme God in Hindu theology. Brahma held it first for a thousand years, then Prajapati held it for five hundred and three years, Indra, for five hundred and eighty years, and Soma for five hundred years. After that Varuna held it for a hundred years before handing it to Arjuna along with a Kapi/ Hanuman bannered chariot, and two inexhaustible quivers, as requested by Agni during the *Khandava-daha Parva*. The bow was decorated with hundreds of gold bosses, and had radiant ends. The bow was worshiped by Devas, Gandharvas and Danavas. Arjuna used it in Kurukshetra war and he was invincible. Besides Krishna and Arjuna no one could wield the bow. When fired, the bow made the sound of thunder. It has special qualities like being indestructible, having 100 bow strings, etc. Which always gave the wielder a heavy advantage over his opponent.

After the war, in Svargarohanika Parva, Agni reappears before Arjuna and asks him to return Gandiva along with the quivers to Varuna.

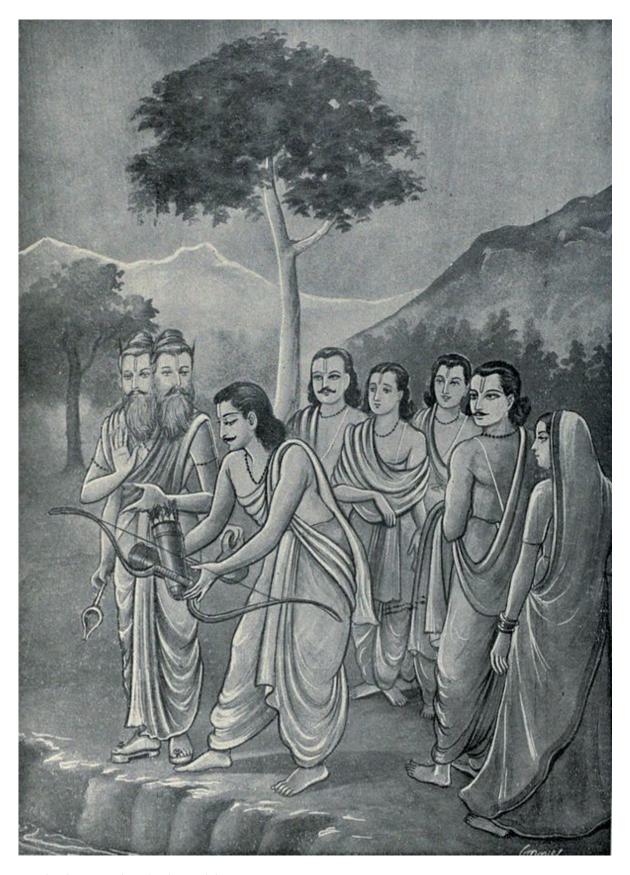
65.1 References

[1] Bharadvaja Sarma, Vyāsa, Bharadvaja Sarma. Vyasa's Mahabharatam. Academic Publishers. p. 844.

65.2 External links

- http://www.sacred-texts.com/hin/m01/m01228.htm
- http://www.sacred-texts.com/hin/m04/m04043.htm

65.2. EXTERNAL LINKS 213



Arjuna abandoning Gandiva after the Kurukshetra war

Shiva Dhanush



Lord Rama breaking Shiva's bow in Hazare Rama Temple at Hampi

Legends speak of the time when, like all friends, Shiva and Vishnu quarrelled and fell apart. They fought with the bows which Vishwakarma had designed for them. They were equally matched in skills, knowledge and power. The battle went on for ages. However, Vishnu had a secret weapon - a *mantra* (sacred incantation / spell) which, when unleashed, tore the string of Shiva's bow, the Pinaka. Shiva, being an ascetic, did not seek deception. He did not approve of Vishnu's tactic. Shiva stood without stringing his bow, but he held it in his hands. Vishnu was bound by the rules of war to take down his opponent since he had not surrendered (he still held his weapon in his hands). Vishnu did not wish to do so. Yet he had to draw an arrow. While he did so, the other Gods who were watching the battle, understood the situation. They came forward and started to sing paeans of Lord Vishnu and congratulate him on his victory, thus coming in between Shiva and Vishnu. Vishnu no longer had a clear line of sight to his opponent. Also, if Vishnu released the arrow, he would hit the Gods. Vishnu put his bow down and the battle ended.

Later, Shiva gave his bow to Sage Vashishtha, who kept it in his *ashram*. Vashishtha, later passed it on to King Janaka, who had a daughter named Sita *Janaki* (Sita, daughter of Janak). In earlier part of her life, Sita while playing with her sisters had unknowingly lifted the table over which the bow had been placed; which was something no one in the kingdom could do. This incident was however observed by King Janaka and he decided to make this incident as the backdrop for swayamvar.

Later, Janaka had announced that whosoever wanted to marry Sita had to do so only after lifting (which was itself a difficult job) the bow from its place and stringing it. The bow was broken by Lord Rama when he attempted to string the bow, during the swayamvar of King Janaka's daughter Sita, thereby winning the princess's hand in marriage. After the marriage when Dasharatha was returning to Ayodhya with Lord Rama, sage Parashurama met them in the forest outside Mithilla and challenged Lord Rama. Lord Rama extolled the sage. After that Dasharatha prayed to the sage to forgive him but Parashurama wouldn't control his anger and brought out Lord Vishnu's bow. He then asked Rama to string the bow and fight a duel with him. Rama snatches the bow of Vishnu, strings it, places an arrow and points it straight at the challenger's heart. Rama then asks Parashurama what he will give as a target to the arrow. At this point, Parashurama feels himself devoid of his mystical energy. He realizes that Rama is Vishnu incarnate, his successor and his superior. He accepts Rama's superiority, devotes his tapasya to him, pays homage to Rama and promises to return to his hermitage and leave the world of men.

Rama then shoots the arrow up into the sky with Vishnu's bow, performing a feat true to his supreme, divine nature with his natural weapon. He overpowered Parashurama and received all his good deeds or punyas as per directed by the sage. Then Parashurama left this world to Mahendra Parvat.

Sharanga (Hindu mythology)

For the district in Nizhny Novgorod Oblast, see Sharangsky District.

Sharnga is the bow of the Hindu God Vishnu. Other weapons of Vishnu include the Sudarshana Chakra, the Narayanastra, and the Kaumodaki. This bow was crafted by Viswakarma, the Cosmic architect and maker of weapons, along with Pinaka, the bow of Lord Shiva. Once Brahma wanted to know who was a better archer, Vishnu or Shiva. So created a quarrel between the two, which led to a terrible duel. The impact of their fight was such that the balance of the entire universe was disturbed. But soon Vishnu was able to paralyze Shiva with his arrows. All the Devas led by Brahma himself begged them to stop, declaring Vishnu the winner as he was able to stun Shiva. Enraged, Shiva gave his bow away to a king, who was an ancestor of King Janaka, the father of Sita. Vishnu too decided to do the same, and gave his bow to sage Richika. In time, Sharanga came into the possession of Parashurama, the sixth avatara of Vishnu and Richika's grandson. Parashurama gave it to Rama, the next incarnation of Vishnu after fulfilling his life's mission. Rama used it and gave to Varuna, the lord of the hydrosphere. In the Mahabharata, Varuna gives it to Krishna(ninth avatar of Vishnu) during the Khandava dahana. Just before his death, Krishna returned it to Varuna by throwing it back into the ocean, Varuna's domain.

67.1 Popular Culture

In the indie video game Terraria, developed by Re-logic, the Sharanga is a craftable bow.

67.2 References

[&]quot;Saranga" redirects here. For the village in Romania, see Şarânga. For the Israeli diplomat, see David Saranga.

Caduceus

This article is about the Greek symbol. For the usage as a medical symbol, see Caduceus as a symbol of medicine. For the medical symbol with one snake, often mistakenly referred to as a caduceus, see Rod of Asclepius. For other uses, see Caduceus (disambiguation).

The **caduceus** (T; /kəˈduːsiːəs/ or /kəˈdjuːʃəs/; from Greek κηρύκειον kērukeion "herald's staff" *[2]) is the staff carried by Hermes in Greek mythology. The same staff was also borne by heralds in general, for example by Iris, the messenger of Hera. It is a short staff entwined by two serpents, sometimes surmounted by wings. In Roman iconography, it was often depicted being carried in the left hand of Mercury, the messenger of the gods, guide of the dead and protector of merchants, shepherds, gamblers, liars, and thieves.*[3]

As a symbolic object, it represents Hermes (or the Roman Mercury), and by extension trades, occupations, or undertakings associated with the god. In later Antiquity, the caduceus provided the basis for the astrological symbol representing the planet Mercury. Thus, through its use in astrology and alchemy, it has come to denote the elemental metal of the same name. It is said the wand would wake the sleeping and send the awake to sleep. If applied to the dying, their death was gentle; if applied to the dead, they returned to life.* [4]

By extension of its association with Mercury and Hermes, the caduceus is also a recognized symbol of commerce and negotiation, two realms in which balanced exchange and reciprocity are recognized as ideals.*[5]*[6] This association is ancient, and consistent from the Classical period to modern times.*[7] The caduceus is also used as a symbol representing printing, again by extension of the attributes of Mercury (in this case associated with writing and eloquence).

The caduceus is often used incorrectly as a symbol of healthcare organizations and medical practice (especially in North America), due to confusion with the traditional medical symbol, the rod of Asclepius, which has only one snake and is never depicted with wings.

68.1 Origin and comparative mythology

Further information: Serpent worship

The term kerukeion denoted any herald's staff, not necessarily associated with Hermes in particular.*[8]

In his study of the cult of Hermes, Lewis Richard Farnell (1909) assumed that the two snakes had simply developed out of ornaments of the shepherd's crook used by heralds as their staff.*[9] This view has been rejected by later authors pointing to parallel iconography in the Ancient Near East. It has been argued that the staff or wand entwined by two snakes was itself representing a god in the pre-anthropomorphic era. Like the herm or priapus, it would thus be a predecessor of the anthropomorphic Hermes of the classical era.*[10]

68.1.1 Ancient Near East

William Hayes Ward (1910) discovered that symbols similar to the classical caduceus sometimes appeared on Mesopotamian

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Modern depiction of the caduceus as the symbol of commerce

cylinder seals. He suggested the symbol originated some time between 3000 and 4000 BCE, and that it might have been the source of the Greek caduceus.*[11] A.L. Frothingham incorporated Dr. Ward's research into his own work, published in 1916, in which he suggested that the prototype of Hermes was an "Oriental deity of Babylonian extraction" represented in his earliest form as a snake god. From this perspective, the caduceus was originally representative of Hermes himself, in his early form as the Underworld god Ningishzida, "messenger" of the "Earth Mother".*[12] The caduceus is mentioned in passing by Walter Burkert*[13] as "really the image of copulating snakes taken over from Ancient Near

Eastern tradition".

In Egyptian iconography, the Djed pillar is depicted as containing a snake in a frieze of the Dendera Temple complex.

68.2 Classical antiquity

68.2.1 Mythology

The Homeric hymn to Hermes relates how Hermes offered his lyre fashioned from a tortoise shell as compensation for the cattle he stole from his half brother Apollo. Apollo in return gave Hermes the caduceus as a gesture of friendship.*[14] The association with the serpent thus connects Hermes to Apollo, as later the serpent was associated with Asclepius, the "son of Apollo".*[15] The association of Apollo with the serpent is a continuation of the older Indo-European dragon-slayer motif. Wilhelm Heinrich Roscher (1913) pointed out that the serpent as an attribute of both Hermes and Asclepius is a variant of the "pre-historic semi-chthonic serpent hero known at Delphi as Python", who in classical mythology is slain by Apollo.*[16]

One Greek myth of origin of the caduceus is part of the story of Tiresias,*[17] who found two snakes copulating and killed the female with his staff. Tiresias was immediately turned into a woman, and so remained until he was able to repeat the act with the male snake seven years later. This staff later came into the possession of the god Hermes, along with its transformative powers.

Another myth suggests that Hermes (or Mercury) saw two serpents entwined in mortal combat. Separating them with his wand he brought about peace between them, and as a result the wand with two serpents came to be seen as a sign of peace.*[18]

In Rome, Livy refers to the *caduceator* who negotiated peace arrangements under the diplomatic protection of the caduceus he carried.*[19]

68.2.2 Iconography

In some vase paintings ancient depictions of the Greek *kerukeion* are somewhat different from the commonly seen modern representation. These representations feature the two snakes atop the staff (or rod), crossed to create a circle with the heads of the snakes resembling horns. This old graphic form, with an additional crossbar to the staff, seems to have provided the basis for the graphical sign of Mercury (\mbeta) used in Greek astrology from Late Antiquity.* [20]

68.3 Modern use

Caduceus is encoded in Unicode at code point U+2624: T.

68.3.1 Symbol of commerce

A simplified variant of the caduceus is to be found in dictionaries, indicating a "commercial term" entirely in keeping with the association of Hermes with commerce. In this form the staff is often depicted with two winglets attached and the snakes are omitted (or reduced to a small ring in the middle).*[21] The Customs Service of the former German Democratic Republic employed the caduceus, bringing its implied associations with thresholds, translators, and commerce, in the service medals they issued their staff.

68.3.2 Confusion with Rod of Asclepius

Main article: Caduceus as a symbol of medicine

It is relatively common, especially in the United States, to find the caduceus, with its two snakes and wings, used as a

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symbol of medicine instead of the correct Rod of Asclepius, with only a single snake. This usage is erroneous, popularised largely as a result of the adoption of the caduceus as its insignia by the U.S. Army Medical Corps in 1902 at the insistence of a single officer (though there are conflicting claims as to whether this was Capt. Frederick P. Reynolds or Col. John R. van Hoff).*[22]*[23]

The rod of Asclepius is the dominant symbol for professional healthcare associations in the United States. One survey found that 62% of professional healthcare associations used the rod of Asclepius as their symbol.*[24] The same survey found that 76% of commercial healthcare organizations used the Caduceus symbol. The author of the study suggests the difference exists because professional associations are more likely to have a real understanding of the two symbols, whereas commercial organizations are more likely to be concerned with the visual impact a symbol will have in selling their products.

The initial errors leading to its adoption and the continuing confusion it generates are well known to medical historians. The long-standing and abundantly attested historical associations of the caduceus with commerce are considered by many to be inappropriate in a symbol used by those engaged in the healing arts.*[23] This has occasioned significant criticism of the use of the caduceus in a medical context.

68.4 See also

- · Aaron's rod
- Amphisbaena
- Bowl of Hygieia
- Nehushtan
- Ningishzida
- Rod of Asclepius
- Serpent (symbolism)
- Kundalini energy
- Mithraic mysteries

68.5 Notes

- [1] It is unclear whether the inscription refers to a patron/donor or a sculptor
- [2] The Latin word cādūceus is an adaptation of the Greek κηρύκειον kērukeion, meaning "herald's wand (or staff)", deriving from κῆρυξ kērux, meaning "messenger, herald, envoy". Liddell and Scott, Greek-English Lexicon; Stuart L. Tyson, "The Caduceus", The Scientific Monthly, **34**.6, (1932:492–98) p. 493
- [3] Hornblower, Spawforth, The Oxford Classical Dictionary, 3rd Ed., Oxford, 1996, pp. 690-691
- [4] William Godwin (1876). "Lives of the Necromancers". p. 37.
- [5] e.g. the Unicode standard, where the "staff of Hermes" signifies "a commercial term or commerce"; see also: Walter J. Friedlander, *The Golden Wand of Medicine: A History of the Caduceus Symbol in Medicine*, Greenwood, 1992, p. 83
- [6] As one specialized study of symbolism notes, "In modern times the caduceus figures as a symbol of commerce, since Mercury is the god of commerce. M. Oldfield Howey, *The Encircled Serpent: A Study of Serpent Symbolism in All Countries And Ages*, New York, 1955, p. 77

68.6. FURTHER READING 221

[7] "The name of the god Mercury cannot be disassociated from the word *merx*, which means merchandise. Such was the sentiment of the ancients" Yves Bonnefoy (Ed.), Wendy Doniger (Trans.), *Roman and European Mythologies*, University of Chicago Press, 1992, p. 135; "Mercury was the Roman name for the Greek god Hermes. His Latin name was apparently derived from merx or mercator, a merchant." Michael E. Bakich, *The Cambridge Planetary Handbook*, Cambridge University Press, 2000, p. 85; Latin *merx* is the root of the English words Commerce, Market, Mart, Mercantile, Mercenary, Mercer, Merchant and Mercury, as can be seen by referring to any dictionary including etymological information.

- [8] Oxford Classical Dictionary, 3rd edition, Ed. Hornblower and Spawforth, s.v. "Hermes".
- [9] Farnell, The Cults of the Greek States, Vol. V, p. 20, cited in Tyson 1932:494
- [10] A. L. Frothingham, *Babylonian Origin of Hermes the Snake-God, and of the Caduceus I* American Journal of Archaeology Vol. 20, No. 2 (Apr. Jun., 1916), pp. 175–211 http://www.jstor.org/stable/497115 Frothingham characterizes Farnell's simplistic view of the origin of the symbol as a "frivolous and futile theory".
- [11] William Hayes Ward, The Seal Cylinders of Western Asia, Washington, 1910
- [12] A.L. Frothingham, "Babylonian Origins of Hermes the Snake-God, and of the Caduceus", in *American Journal of Archaeology*, Vol. 20, No. 2, pp. 175–211
- [13] Burkert, Greek Religion 1985: II.2.8, p. 158; Burkert notes H. Frankfort, in Iraq, 1 (1934:10) and E.D. van Buren, in Archiv für Orientforschung, 10 (1935/36:53-65.
- [14] Tyson 1932:494.
- [15] Deldon Anne McNeely *Mercury rising: women, evil, and the trickster gods*, Spring Publications, 1996, ISBN 978-0-88214-366-8, p. 90. "Homer tell us that Hermes' caduceus, the golden wand, was acquired by Hermes from Apollo in exchange for the tortoise-lyre; later the caduceus changed hands again from Hermes to Apollo's son, Asclepius."
- [16] S. Davis, 'Argeiphontes in Homer The Dragon-Slayer', Greece & Rome, Vol. 22, No. 64 (Feb., 1953), pp. 33–38, http://www.jstor.org/stable/640827 citing W. H. Roscher, Omphalos (1913).
- [17] Blayney, Keith (September 2002). "The Caduceus vs the Staff of Asclepius". Retrieved 2007-06-15.
- [18] Tyson 1932:495
- [19] Livy: Ab Urbe Condita, 31,38,9–10
- [20] "Signs and Symbols Used In Writing and Printing", p 269, in *Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language*, unabridged, New York, 1953. Here the symbol of the planet Mercury is indicated as "the caduceus of Mercury, or his head and winged cap".
- [21] For example, see the Unicode standard, where the "staff of Hermes" signifies "a commercial term or commerce".
- [22] F.H. Garrison, "The Use of the Caduceus in the Insignia of the Army Medical Officer", in *Bull. Med. Lib. Assoc.* IX (1919-20), 13-16
- [23] Engle, Bernice (Dec 1929). "The Use of Mercury's Caduceus as a Medical Emblem"". The Classical Journal 25 (1): 205.
- [24] Friedlander, Walter J (1992). *The Golden Wand of Medicine: A History of the Caduceus symbol in medicine*. Greenwood Press. ISBN 0-313-28023-1.
- [25] An allusion to John Milton's description of Belial in Paradise Lost II.113-114.
- [26] Tyson, Stuart L (1932). "The Caduceus". Scientific Monthly 34 (6): 495.

68.6 Further reading

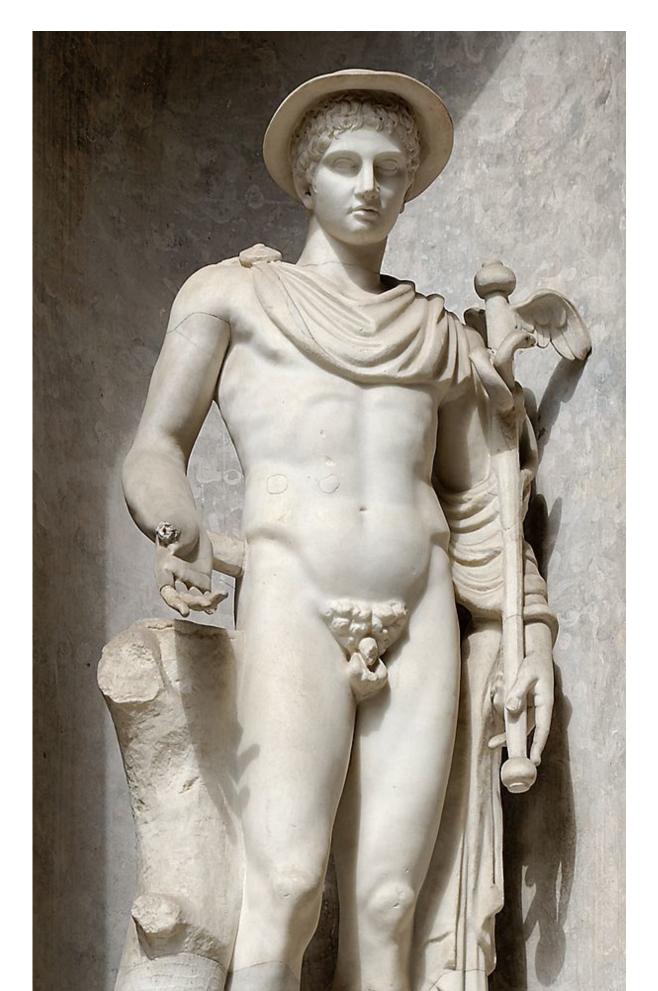
- Walter J. Friedlander, *The Golden Wand of Medicine: A History of the Caduceus Symbol in Medicine*, 1992. ISBN 0-313-28023-1; ISBN 978-0-313-28023-8.
- Bunn, J. T. *Origin of the caduceus motif*, JAMA, 1967. United States National Institutes of Health: National Center for Biotechnology Information. PMID 4863068
- Burkert, Walter, Structure and History in Greek Mythology and Ritual, Translation, University of California, 1979.

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68.7 External links

- Iris and Infant Hermes with Caduceus
- Caduceus from Encyclopaedia Britannica
- Fenkl, Heinz Insu, Caduceus

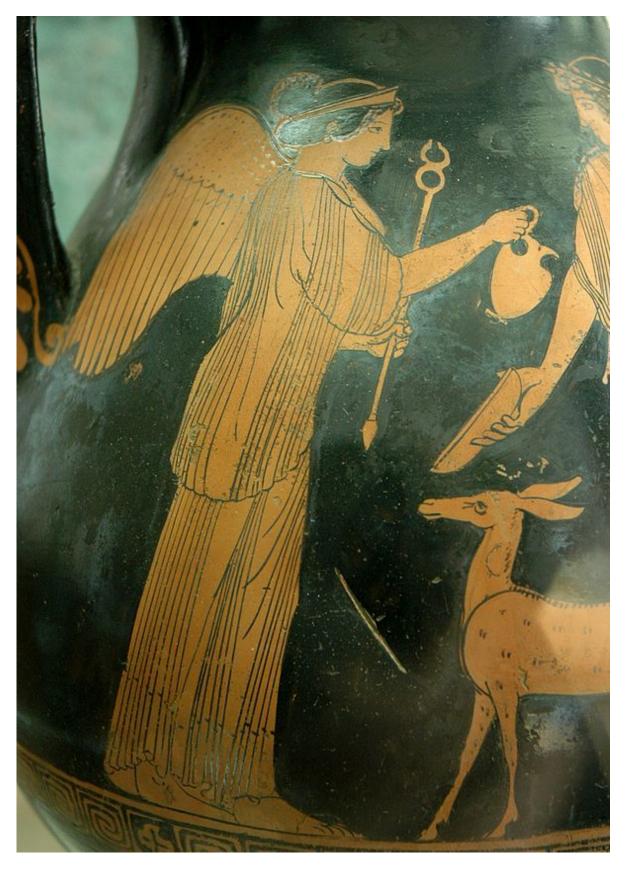
68.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 223



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68.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 225



 ${\it Iris\ with\ the\ caduceus\ in\ detail\ from\ an\ Attic\ red-figure\ pelike,\ middle\ of\ 5th\ century\ BC-Agrigento,\ Sicilia}$

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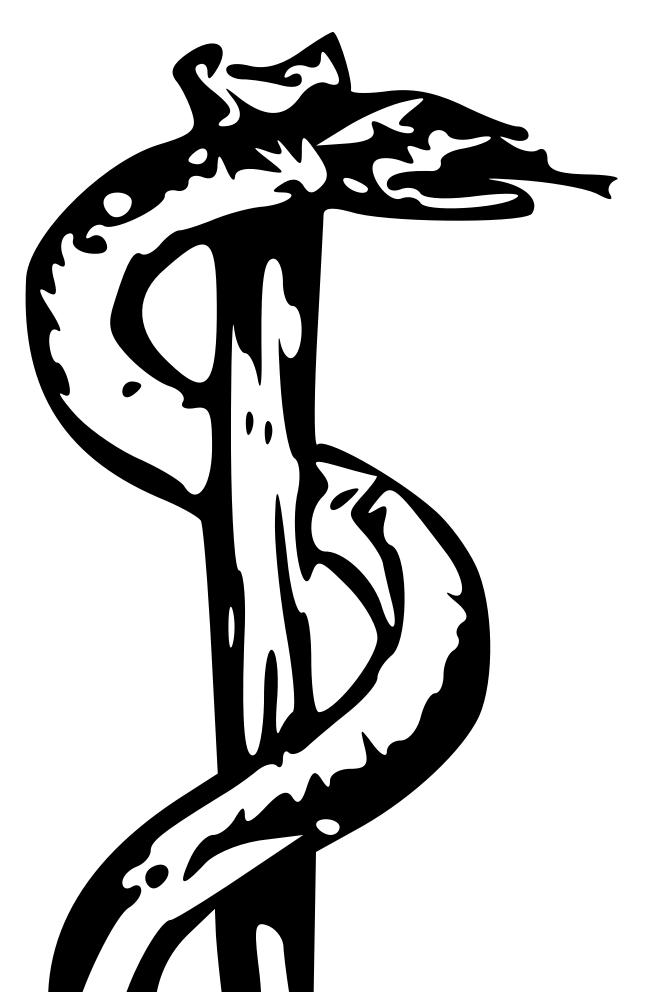


68.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 227



The U.S. Army Medical Corps Branch Plaque. In 1902 the caduceus was added to the uniforms of Army medical officers.

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Gambanteinn

In Norse mythology, Gambanteinn (Old Norse gambanteinn 'magic wand') appears in two poems in the Poetic Edda.

69.1 Hárbarðsljóð

In Hárbarðsljóð stanza 20, Hárbarðr says:

A giant hard was Hlébard, methinks: His *gambanteinn* he gave me as gift, And I stole his wits away.

69.2 Skírnismál

In Skírnismál (Stanzas 25 to 26) Skírnir speaks to Gerd:

Seest thou, maiden, this keen, bright sword

That I hold here in my hand? Before its blade the old giant bends,— Thy father is doomed to die.

I strike thee, maid, with my *gambanteinn*, To tame thee to work my will;
There shalt thou go where never again

The sons of men shall see thee.

Skírnir then condemns Gerd to live lonely and hideous, unloved, either married to a three-headed giant or forever unwed. It might seem that this *gambanteinn* also refers to the sword with which Skirnir has previously threatened Gerd. But immediately after concluding his curse, Skírnir says (stanza 32):

I go to the wood, and to the wet forest, To win a *gambanteinn*; I won a *gambanteinn*.

The poem then continues with further threats by Skírnir condemning Gerd to a life of misery.

Gríðr

In Norse mythology, $\mathbf{Griðr}$ (Old Norse "greed" *[1] or "greed, vehemence, violence, impetuosity" *[2]) is a female jötunn who, aware of Loki's plans to have Thor killed at the hands of the giant Geirröd, helped Thor by supplying him with a number of magical gifts which included a pair of iron gloves, and a staff known as $\mathbf{Griðarv\"olr}$. These items saved Thor's life. She is also the mother of the god Víðarr by Odin.

Gríðr is referenced in the poem *Pórsdrápa* and in Snorri Sturluson's *Skáldskaparmál*. She or a someone of the same name appears as a witch in *Illuga saga Gríðarfóstra*.

70.1 Notes

- [1] Orchard (1997:61).
- [2] Simek (2007:117).

70.2 References

- Orchard, Andy (1997). Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2
- Simek, Rudolf (2007) translated by Angela Hall. *Dictionary of Northern Mythology*. D.S. Brewer. ISBN 0-85991-513-1

Rod of Asclepius

In Greek mythology, the **Rod of Asclepius** ([2]),*[1] also known as the **Staff of Asclepius** (sometimes also spelled **Asklepios** or **Aesculapius**) and as the **asklepian**,*[2] is a serpent-entwined rod wielded by the Greek god Asclepius, a deity associated with healing and medicine. The symbol has continued to be used in modern times, where it is associated with medicine and health care, yet frequently confused with the staff of the god Hermes, the caduceus. Theories have been proposed about the Greek origin of the symbol and its implications.

71.1 Greek mythology and Greek society

The Rod of Asclepius takes its name from the god Asclepius, a deity associated with healing and medicinal arts in Greek mythology. Asclepius's attributes, the snake and the staff, sometimes depicted separately in antiquity, are combined in this symbol.*[3]

The most famous temple of Asclepius was at Epidaurus in north-eastern Peloponnese. Another famous healing temple (or asclepieion) was located on the island of Kos, where Hippocrates, the legendary "father of medicine", may have begun his career. Other asclepieia were situated in Trikala, Gortys (in Arcadia), and Pergamum in Asia.

In honor of Asclepius, a particular type of non-venomous snake was often used in healing rituals, and these snakes – the Aesculapian Snakes – crawled around freely on the floor in dormitories where the sick and injured slept. These snakes were introduced at the founding of each new temple of Asclepius throughout the classical world. From about 300 BC onwards, the cult of Asclepius grew very popular and pilgrims flocked to his healing temples (Asclepieia) to be cured of their ills. Ritual purification would be followed by offerings or sacrifices to the god (according to means), and the supplicant would then spend the night in the holiest part of the sanctuary – the abaton (or adyton). Any dreams or visions would be reported to a priest who would prescribe the appropriate therapy by a process of interpretation.*[4] Some healing temples also used sacred dogs to lick the wounds of sick petitioners.*[5]

The original Hippocratic Oath began with the invocation "I swear by Apollo the Physician and by Asclepius and by Hygieia and Panacea and by all the gods ..." *[5]

The serpent and the staff appear to have been separate symbols that were combined at some point in the development of the Asclepian cult.*[6] The significance of the serpent has been interpreted in many ways; sometimes the shedding of skin and renewal is emphasized as symbolizing rejuvenation,*[7] while other assessments center on the serpent as a symbol that unites and expresses the dual nature of the work of the physician, who deals with life and death, sickness and health.*[8] The ambiguity of the serpent as a symbol, and the contradictions it is thought to represent, reflect the ambiguity of the use of drugs,*[9] which can help or harm, as reflected in the meaning of the term *pharmakon*, which meant "drug", "medicine" and "poison" in ancient Greek.*[10] Products deriving from the bodies of snakes were known to have medicinal properties in ancient times, and in ancient Greece, at least some were aware that snake venom that might be fatal if it entered the bloodstream could often be imbibed. Snake venom appears to have been 'prescribed' in some cases as a form of therapy.*[11]

The staff has also been variously interpreted. One view is that it, like the serpent, "conveyed notions of resurrection and healing", while another (not necessarily incompatible) is that the staff was a walking stick associated with itinerant physicians.*[12] Cornutus, a Greek philosopher probably active in the first century CE, in the *Theologiae Graecae Compendium* (Ch. 33) offers a view of the significance of both snake and staff:

Asclepius derived his name from healing soothingly and from deferring the withering that comes with death. For this reason, therefore, they give him a serpent as an attribute, indicating that those who avail themselves of medical science undergo a process similar to the serpent in that they, as it were, grow young again after illnesses and slough off old age; also because the serpent is a sign of attention, much of which is required in medical treatments. The staff also seems to be a symbol of some similar thing. For by means of this it is set before our minds that unless we are supported by such inventions as these, in so far as falling continually into sickness is concerned, stumbling along we would fall even sooner than necessary.*[13]

In any case the two symbols certainly merged in antiquity as representations of the snake coiled about the staff are common. It has been claimed that the snake wrapped around the staff was a species of rat snake, *Elaphe longissima*.*[14]

71.1.1 Theories

Some commentators have interpreted the symbol as a direct representation of traditional treatment of *Dracunculus medinensis*, the Guinea worm. The worm emerges from painful ulcerous blisters. The blisters burn, causing the patient to immerse the affected area in water to cool and soothe it. The worm senses the temperature change and discharges its larva into the water. The traditional treatment was to slowly pull the worm out of the wound over a period of hours to weeks and wind it around a stick.*[15] The modern treatment may replace the stick with a piece of sterile gauze but is otherwise largely identical.*[16]

Some commentators have linked the symbol to the Nehushtan, a sacred object consisting of a serpent wrapped around a pole mentioned in the Bible in the Book of Numbers (Numbers 21:5–9).*[17]*[18]*[19]*[20] The section in the Book of Numbers reads as follows:

5 And the people spake against God, and against Moses, Wherefore have ye brought us up out of Egypt to die in the wilderness? for there is no bread, neither is there any water; and our soul loatheth this light bread. 6 And the Lord sent fiery serpents among the people, and they bit the people; and much people of Israel died. 7 Therefore the people came to Moses, and said, We have sinned, for we have spoken against the Lord, and against thee; pray unto the Lord, that he take away the serpents from us. And Moses prayed for the people. 8 And the Lord said unto Moses, Make thee a fiery serpent, and set it upon a pole: and it shall come to pass, that every one that is bitten, when he looketh upon it, shall live. 9 And Moses made a serpent of brass, and put it upon a pole, and it came to pass, that if a serpent had bitten any man, when he beheld the serpent of brass, he lived.*[21]

This is consistent with the theory in the New Testament of the Bible that Jesus also delivers believers from eternal death in the passage found in John 3:14–15.

14 And as Moses lifted up the serpent in the wilderness, even so must the Son of man be lifted up: 15 That whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have eternal life.*[21]

71.2 Modern use

A number of organizations and services use the rod of Asclepius as their logo, or part of their logo. These include:

- Emergency medical services in the United Kingdom
- American Academy of Physician Assistants

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- Academy of Medicine of Malaysia
- Ambulance Paramedics of British Columbia
- American Osteopathic Association
- American Medical Association
- American Medical Response
- American Academy of Family Physicians
- American College of Osteopathic Internists
- American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law
- American Hippocratic Registry
- American Medical Student Association
- American Veterinary Medical Association
- Army Medical Department of the U.S. Army (AMEDD)
- Australian Medical Association
- Australian Veterinary Association
- Blue Cross Blue Shield Association
- British Medical Association
- British Royal Army Medical Corps
- Canadian Association of Physician Assistants
- Canadian Medical Association
- Royal Canadian Medical Service
- International Medical University, Malaysia
- Malaysian Medical Council
- Medical Council of India
- Medical Protection Society
- MedicAlert
- Pakistan Army Medical Corps
- Royal Australian Army Medical Corps
- Royal College of Psychiatrists
- South African Medical Research Council former coat of arms
- South African Military Health Service
- Spanish National Council of Medical Student's Association (CEEM)
- Student Osteopathic Medical Association
- Star of Life, symbol of emergency medical services

- Tygerberg Academic Hospital, Cape Town, South Africa
- United States Navy Hospital Corps
- United States Air Force Medical Corps
- World Health Organization
- Yale University School of Medicine

71.2.1 Confusion with the caduceus

Main article: Caduceus as a symbol of medicine

It is relatively common, especially in the United States, to find the caduceus, with its two snakes and wings, used as a symbol of medicine instead of the correct Rod of Asclepius, with only a single snake. This usage is erroneous, popularised largely as a result of the adoption of the caduceus as its insignia by the U.S. Army Medical Corps in 1902 at the insistence of a single officer (though there are conflicting claims as to whether this was Capt. Frederick P. Reynolds or Col. John R. van Hoff).*[22]*[23]

The rod of Asclepius is the dominant symbol for professional healthcare associations in the United States. One survey found that 62% of professional healthcare associations used the rod of Asclepius as their symbol.*[24] The same survey found that 76% of commercial healthcare organizations used the Caduceus symbol. The author of the study suggests the difference exists because professional associations are more likely to have a real understanding of the two symbols, whereas commercial organizations are more likely to be concerned with the visual impact a symbol will have in selling their products.

The initial errors leading to its adoption and the continuing confusion it generates are well known to medical historians. The long-standing and abundantly attested historical associations of the caduceus with commerce are considered by many to be inappropriate in a symbol used by those engaged in the healing arts.*[23] This has occasioned significant criticism of the use of the caduceus in a medical context.

71.3 Standard representation

The rod of Asclepius has a representation on the Miscellaneous Symbols table of the Unicode Standard at U+2695 (\$).

71.4 See also

- Aaron's rod
- Bowl of Hygieia
- Phurba
- Chakra
- Caduceus
- Ningishzida
- Nehushtan
- Nāga

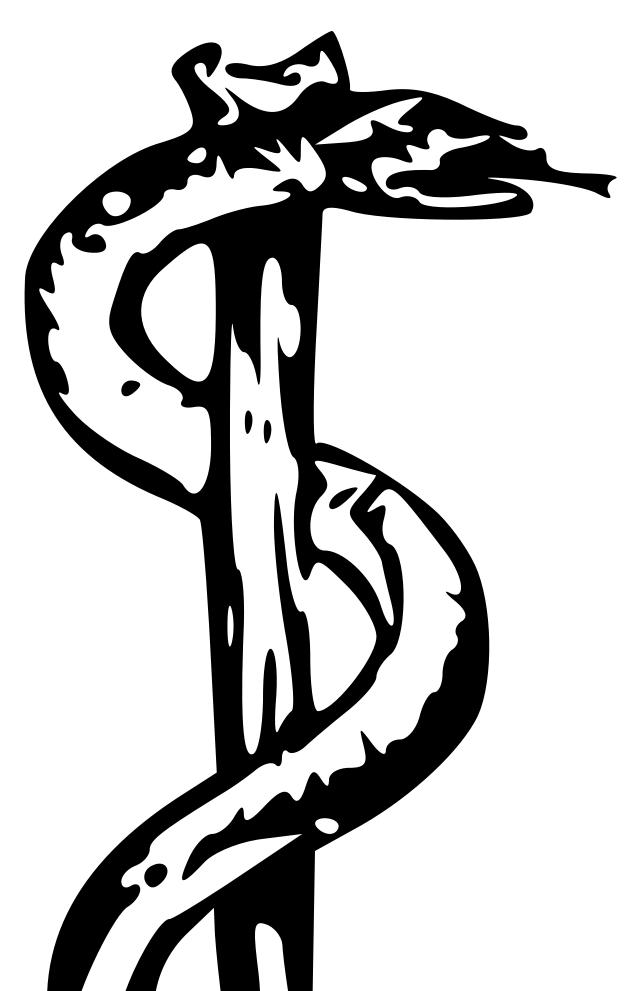
71.5. REFERENCES 235

71.5 References

- [1] U+2695 \$ staff of aesculapius (See also caduceus)
- [2] Wilcox, Robert A; Whitham, Emma M (15 April 2003). "The symbol of modern medicine: why one snake is more than two". *Annals of Internal Medicine*. Retrieved 2007-06-15.
- [3] See for example Pausanias, *Description of Greece* 2.26.1–28.1 (here translated by Jones) 2nd A.D.: "The image of Asklepios is, in size, half as big as Zeus Olympios at Athens, and is made of ivory and gold. An inscription tells us that the artist was Thrasymedes, a Parian, son of Arignotos. The god is sitting on a seat grasping a staff; the other hand he is holding above the head of the serpent."
- [4] Sigerist. Chapter 3, Religious medicine: Asclepius and his cult, p. 63ff.
- [5] Farnell, Chapter 10, "The Cult of Asklepios" (pp. 234–279)
- [6] Stephen Lock, John M. Last, George Dunea, The Oxford Illustrated Companion To Medicine, 2001, p261 "In early statues of Asclepius the rod and serpent were represented separately."
- [7] "Asklepios' reptile was a healing creature: in ancient mythology the snake, whose skin was shed and rejuvenated, symbolized eternity and restoration of life and health" Albert R. Jonsen, *The New Medicine and the Old Ethics*, Harvard University Press, 1990, p122; this interpretation was current in Antiquity, as can be seen in an account of Apollodorus: "your marvel at the serpent curling around him and say that it is the symbol of the healing art, because just as the serpent sloughs the skin of old age, so the medical art releases from illness." (in E. Edelstein and L. Edelstein (eds.), *Asclepius: A Collection and Interpretation of the Testimonies*, Baltimore, 1945, p12)
- [8] "[...] the ancient conception of the serpent as the embodiment of the mystery of one absolute life of the earth, which entails a continual dying and resurrection [...] the combination of corruption and salvation, of darkness and light, of good and evil in the Asklepian symbol." Jan Schouten, *The Rod and Serpent of Asklepios*, Symbol of Medicine, 1967, p2
- [9] Albert R. Jonsen, The New Medicine and the Old Ethics, Harvard University Press, 1990, p122-123
- [10] Henry E. Sigerist, A History of Medicine, Oxford University Press, 1987, p27-28
- [11] James A. Kelhoffer, *Miracle and Mission*, Mohr Siebeck, 2000, p438-439 "[...] it was known, at least by some people in antiquity, that a snake's venom is not harmful if imbibed, but rather only if it enters directly into a person's blood stream. For example, the first-century CE historian Lucan writes that the younger Cato, when leading his troops through Libya during the Roman Civil War, informed his men about this very point [...] "The poison of snakes is only deadly when mixed with the blood; their venom is in their bite, and they threaten death with their fangs. There is no death in the cup.'" He also mentions an account of Cornelius Celsus (first century CE) "'For a serpent's poison, like certain hunter's poisons..., does no harm when swallowed, but only in a wound'". "Likewise, Galen relates a rather peculiar healing by Asclepius involving viper's venom. The god appeared to a wealthy man in Pergamum and prescribed 'that he should drink every day of the drug produced from the vipers and should anoint the body from the outside.' [...] The elder Philostratus describes a similar practice of 'the wise Asclepiads,' who 'heal the bites of venomous creatures... using the virus itself as a cure of many diseases.'"
- [12] Andre Menez, The Subtle Beast, Snakes From Myth to Medicine, 2003, p14
- [13] Emma J. Edelstein, Ludwig Edelstein (February 27, 1998). *Asclepius: Collection and Interpretation of the Testimonies*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press. p. 13. ISBN 0801857694.
- [14] Gerald David Hart, Martin St. J. Forrest, Asclepius: The God of Medicine, 2000, p42
- [15] Blayney, Keith (Sep 2002). "The Caduceus vs. the Staff of Asclepius". Alternative Journal of Nursing July 2007, Issue 14, page 4.
- [16] "Management of Guinea Worm Disease (GWD)". Centers of Disease Control. Retrieved 1 May 2012.
- [17] "Healing Rod of Asclepius". Times of India. 24 September 2011.
- [18] "The BMA's Logo". British Medical Association.
- [19] "The symbol for the AMA: Medicine for the 21st century". American Medical Association.
- [20] "History of the Star of Life". City of Somerset Public Safety.

- [21] King James Bible
- [22] F.H. Garrison, "The Use of the Caduceus in the Insignia of the Army Medical Officer", in *Bull. Med. Lib. Assoc.* IX (1919-20), 13-16
- [23] Engle, Bernice (Dec 1929). "The Use of Mercury's Caduceus as a Medical Emblem"". The Classical Journal 25 (1): 205.
- [24] Friedlander, Walter J (1992). *The Golden Wand of Medicine: A History of the Caduceus symbol in medicine*. Greenwood Press. ISBN 0-313-28023-1.
- [25] An allusion to John Milton's description of Belial in Paradise Lost II.113-114.
- [26] Tyson, Stuart L (1932). "The Caduceus" . Scientific Monthly 34 (6): 495.

71.5. REFERENCES 237





The emergency services' Star of Life features a rod of Asclepius

71.5. REFERENCES 239



The U.S. Army Medical Corps Branch Plaque. In 1902 the caduceus was added to the uniforms of Army medical officers.

Ruyi Jingu Bang

Ruyi Jingu Bang (Chinese: 如意金箍棒; Pinyin: *Rúyì Jīngū Bàng*), or simply as **Ruyi Bang** or **Jingu Bang**, is the poetic name of a magical staff wielded by the immortal monkey Sun Wukong in the 16th-century classic Chinese novel *Journey to the West*. Anthony Yu translates the name simply as "The Compliant Golden-Hooped Rod," *[1] while W.J.F. Jenner translates it as the "As-You-Will Gold-Banded Cudgel." *[2]

72.1 Origin and General description

The staff first appears in the third chapter when the Monkey King goes to the underwater kingdom of Ao Guang, the Dragon King of the East Sea, looking for a magic weapon to match his strength and skill. When all of the traditional magic weapons--swords, spears, and halberds weighing thousands of pounds each--fail to meet his standards, the dragon queen suggests to her husband that they give Sun a useless iron pillar taking up space in their treasury. She claims that the ancient shaft had started producing heavenly light days prior and suggests that the monkey is fated to own it. The novel never explains how the pillar was made, only that it was originally used by Yu the Great to measure the depths of the world flood during times immemorial.*[3]

The staff is initially described as a pillar of black iron twenty feet in height and the width of a barrel. It is only when Monkey lifts it and suggests that a smaller size would be more manageable that the staff complies with his wishes and shrinks. This is when Sun sees that the weapon is banded with a gold ring on each end, as well as the inscription along the body reading "The Compliant Golden-Hooped Rod. Weight: thirteen thousand five hundred [catties]" (如意金箍棒重一万三千五百斤).*[4] The inscription indicates that the staff follows the commands of its owner, shrinking or growing to their whim, and that it is immensely heavy, weighing 17,550 lbs (7,960 kg).*[5]

When not in use, Monkey shrinks it down to the size of a needle and keeps it tucked behind his ear.

72.2 Literary Predecessor

The oldest edition of *Journey to the West*, the 13th-century Kōzanji Version (高山寺) published during the late Song Dynasty, *[6] diverges in many points from the final version published during the Ming. For instance, the episode where Monkey acquires the staff is completely different, as is the staff itself. Sun takes the monk Xuanzang to heaven to meet the supreme god Mahabrahma Deva. After the monk impresses the gods with his lecture on the *Lotus Sutra*, Monkey is given a golden monk's staff (among other items) as a magical weapon against the evils they will face on their journey to India. Sun later uses the staff in a battle with a white-clad woman who transforms into a tiger demon. He changes the staff into a titanic red-haired, blue-skinned Yaksha with a club, showing that the predecessor of the Compliant Golden-Hooped Rod has more magical abilities.*[7]

A weapon that predicts the Compliant Rod from the Ming version is mentioned in passing early on in the tale. Monkey mentions that the Queen Mother of the West had flogged him with an "Iron Cudgel" (囚棒) on his left and right sides

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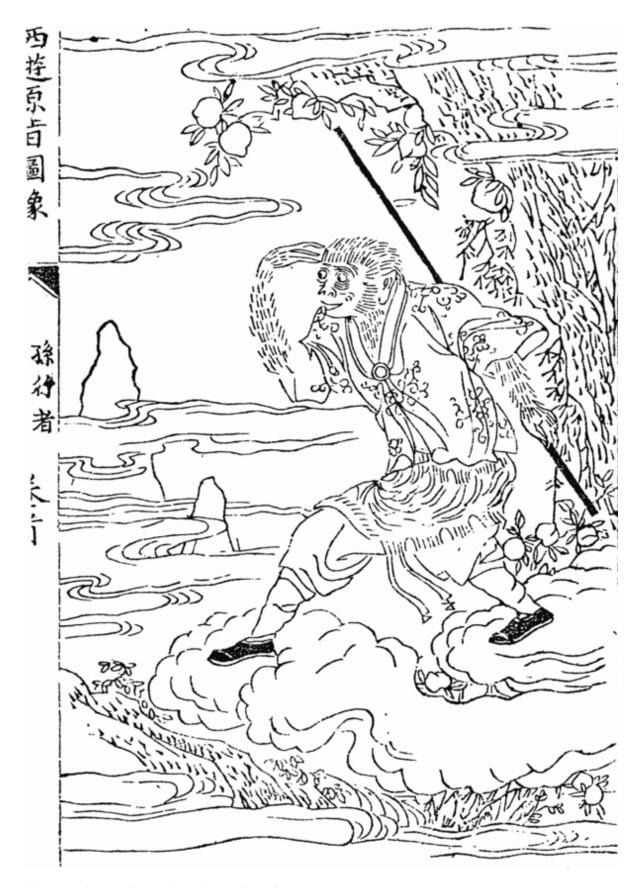
for stealing 10 peaches from her heavenly garden. He later borrows the cudgel to use in tandem with the monk's staff to battle 9 dragons.*[8] The rings on the latter may have influenced the bands on the former.*[9]

72.3 Influence

The staff influenced the weapon used by the humanoid alien Son Goku (himself based on Sun Wukong),*[10] the main character of the Dragon Ball franchise. It is named "Nyoi Bo," the Japanese transliteration of Ruyi bang (如意棒, Compliant Rod), and is commonly called "Power Pole" in English language media.*[11] The staff is given to him as a child by his grandfather Gohan, a human who adopts and teaches him martial arts.*[12]

72.4 Reference

- [1] Wu, Cheng'en, and Anthony C. Yu. The Journey to the West (Vol. 1). Chicago, Ill: University of Chicago Press, 2012, p. 104
- [2] Wu, Cheng'en, and W.J.F. Jenner. Journey to the West (Vol. 1). [S.l.]: Foreign Languages Press, 2001, p. 56.
- [3] The less accurate W.J.F. Jenner translation says the pillar was used to fix the milky way in place (Wu and Jenner, *Journey to the West* (Vol. 1), p. 55).
- [4] Anthony Yu's original translation uses the word "pounds" (Wu and Yu, *Journey to the West* (Vol. 1), 104). However, Chinese versions of the novel use *jin* (元). *Jin* and pound are two different measures of weight, the former being heavier than the latter. Therefore, the English text has been altered to show this.
- [5] The *jin* during the Ming Dynasty when the novel was compiled equaled 590 grams (Elvin, Mark. *The Retreat of the Elephants: An Environmental History of China*. New Haven (Conn.): Yale university press, 2004, p. 491 n. 133).
- [6] This edition is named after the Japanese temple in which housed a 17th-century document mentioning the work (Mair, Victor H. *The Columbia Anthology of Traditional Chinese Literature*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1994, p. 1181).
- [7] Dudbridge, Glen. *The Hsi-Yu Chi: A Study of Antecedents to the Sixteenth-Century Chinese Novel*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1970, pp. 32 and 35.
- [8] Ibid, pp. 37-38.
- [9] Ibid, p. 38.
- [10] West, Mark I. The Japanification of Children's Popular Culture: From Godzilla to Miyazaki. Lanham: Scarecrow Press, 2009, p. 203.
- [11] Camp, Brian, and Julie Davis. *Anime Classics Zettail: 100 Must-See Japanese Animation Masterpieces*. Berkeley, Calif: Stone Bridge Press, 2007, p. 112.
- [12] Toriyama, Akira, and Gerard Jones. Dragon Ball (Vol. 2). San Francisco, Calif: Viz LLC, 2003, 4.



A 19th-century drawing of Sun Wukong featuring his staff.

Thyrsus

For other uses, see Thyrsus (disambiguation).

A **thyrsus** or **thyrsos** (Ancient Greek: θύρσος) was a wand or staff of giant fennel (*Ferula communis*) covered with ivy vines and leaves, sometimes wound with taeniae and always topped with a pine cone.

73.1 Symbolism

The thyrsus, associated with Dionysus (or Bacchus) and his followers, the Satyrs and Maenads, is a symbol of prosperity, fertility, hedonism, and pleasure/enjoyment in general.*[1] It has been suggested that this was specifically a fertility phallus, with the fennel representing the shaft of the penis and the pine cone representing the "seed" issuing forth. The thyrsus was tossed in the Bacchic dance:

Pentheus: The thyrsus—in my right hand shall I hold it?

Or thus am I more like a Bacchanal?

Dionysus: In thy right hand, and with thy right foot raise it".*[2]

Sometimes the thyrsus was displayed in conjunction with a kantharos wine cup, another symbol of Dionysus, forming a male-and-female combination like that of the royal scepter and orb.*[3]

73.2 Use

In Greek religion, the staff was carried by the votaries of Dionysos. Euripides wrote that honey dripped from the thyrsos staves that the Bacchic maenads carried.*[4] The thyrsus was a sacred instrument at religious rituals and fêtes.

The fabulous history of Bacchus relates that he converted the thyrsi carried by himself and his followers into dangerous weapons, by concealing an iron point in the head of leaves.*[5] Hence his thyrsus is called "a spear enveloped in vine-leaves", *[6] and its point was thought to incite to madness.*[7]

73.3 Literature

In the *Iliad*, Diomedes, one of the leading warriors of the Achaeans, mentions the thyrsus while speaking to Glaucus, one of the Lycian commanders in the Trojan army, about Lycurgus, the king of Scyros:

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He it was that/drove the nursing women who were in charge/of frenzied Bacchus through the land of Nysa,/and they flung their thyrsi on the ground as/murderous Lycurgus beat them with his ox-/goad. (*Iliad*, Book VI.132-37)

The thyrsus is explicitly attributed to Dionysus in Euripides's play *The Bacchae* as part of the costume of the Dionysian cult.

...To raise my Bacchic shout, and clothe all who respond/ In fawnskin habits, and put my thyrsus in their hands—/ The weapon wreathed with ivy-shoots..." Euripides also writes, "There's a brute wildness in the fennel-wands—Reverence it well." (*The Bacchae and Other Plays*, trans. by Philip Vellacott, Penguin, 1954.)

Plato writes in *Phaedo*:

I conceive that the founders of the mysteries had a real meaning and were not mere triflers when they intimated in a figure long ago that he who passes unsanctified and uninitiated into the world below will live in a slough, but that he who arrives there after initiation and purification will dwell with the gods. For "many," as they say in the mysteries, "are the thyrsus bearers, but few are the mystics,"--meaning, as I interpret the words, the true philosophers.

In Part II of Johann Wolfgang von Goethe's *Faust*, Mephistopheles tries to catch a Lamia, only to find out that she is an illusion:

Well, then, a tall one I will catch.../And now a thyrsus-pole I snatch!/Only a pine-cone as its head. (7775-7777)

Robert Browning mentions the thyrsus in passing in *The Bishop Orders His Tomb at St Praxed's Church*, as the dying bishop confuses Christian piety with classical extravagance:

The bas-relief in bronze ye promised me,/Those Pans and nymphs ye wot of, and perchance/Some tripod, thrysus, with a vase or so, (56-58)

Sookie Stackhouse notes the thyrsus carried by the maenad in the 2nd book of The Southern Vampire Mysteries.

She idly waved the long wand with the tuft on the end. It was called a thyrsis [sic]; I' d looked maenad up in the encyclopedia. Now I could die educated. (Harris, Charlaine (2006-09-01). "Living Dead in Dallas: A Sookie Stackhouse Novel"

73.4 Gallery

- A Bacchant holding a thyrsus: *Malice* by William-Adolphe Bouguereau (1899)
- Roman relief showing a Maenad holding a thyrsus, 120-140 AD (Prado Museum, Madrid).
- Bacchus Triumphant by John Reinhard Weguelin (1882)
- A Maenad using her thyrsos to ward off a Satyr, Attic red-figure kylix, circa 480 BC

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73.5 Notes

- [1] Ioannis Kakridis, Ελληνική μυθολογία Εκδοτική Αθηνών 1987 (in Greek)
- [2] The Bacchae
- [3] Vinum Nostrum. "Red-figure bell krater". Museo Galileo.
- [4] Euripides, Bacchae, 711.
- [5] Diodorus. iii. 64, iv. 4; Macrobius. Sat. i. 19.
- [6] Ovid. Met. iii, 667
- [7] Hor. Carm. ii. 19. 8; Ovid. Amor. iii 1. 23, iii. 15. 17, Trist. iv. 1. 43.; Brunk, Anal. iii. 201; Orph. Hymn. xlv. 5, 1. 8.

73.6 References

- Casadio, Giovanni; Johnston, Patricia A., Mystic Cults in Magna Graecia, University of Texas Press, 2009
- Ferdinand Joseph M. de Waele, The magic staff or rod in Græco-Italian antiquity, Drukkerij Erasmus, 1927

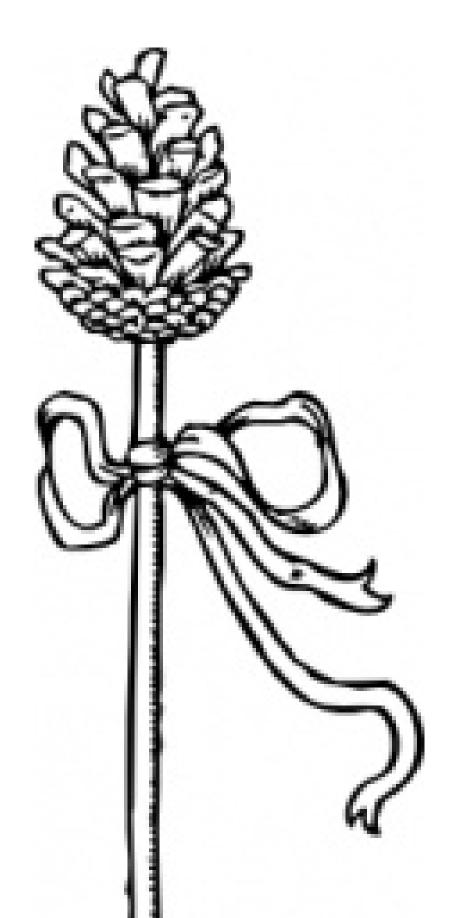
Attribution

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73.7 External links

- Thrysus at Encyclopædia Britannica Online
- Thrysus at The Ancient Library
- Thyrsus at Perseus Project

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Axe of Perun

The **Axe of Perun** (*ceκupa Πepyha* **Perun's axe / амулет-топорик* **hatchet amulet*) is an archaeological artifact worn as a pendant and shaped like a battle axe. It is mostly found in modern day Russia and parts of Scandinavia. Connection with the Slavic pre-Christian god Perun was made by VP Darkevich, although some authors prefer the association with Norse material culture

74.1 Amulet description

The axes range in length from 4 to 5.5 cm, and blade width from 2.8 to 4 cm. Bronze is the most common material of their construction. Most have been dated between the 11th and 12th century, and over 60 specimens have been collected.

Two basic designs of the axe have been found throughout Russia and its boundaries.

Specimens of both designs include a hole in the centre of the blade, and both have been decorated with zigzag lines, representing lightning or more likely imitating inlaid ornamentation patterns of real axes, near the edge of the blade.

Type 1

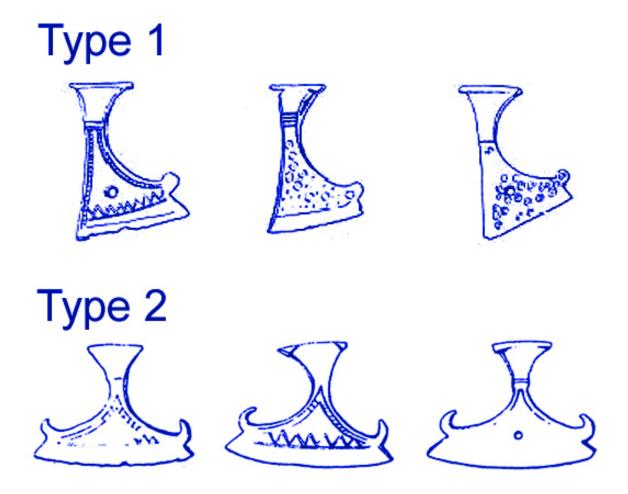
The first type is a bearded axe (lower side of the blade is elongated) with a flat upper side. It resembles a battle axe. A knob-like protrusion is usually present on the lower side of the axe. These axes have been decorated with circles, believed to represent celestial bodies.

Type 2

The second type is distinguished by its symmetrical shape and broad blade. Similar to the knob of the first type, the second has two horn-like protrusions diametrically opposite on the upper and lower side.

74.2 See also

- Slavic mythology
- Perun
- Mjöllnir



Drawings of Slavic axe amulets based on archaeological findings dating between the 11th and 12th century.

74.3 References

• Organizmica http://www.organizmica.org/archive/505/drat.shtml

P. kucypera, S. Wadyl "Early medieval miniature axes of Makarov' s type 2 in the Baltic sea Region"

74.3. REFERENCES 249



Modern day "Axe of Perun" amulet based on a finding from the Khazar fortress Sarkel (Саркел), excavated in the 1930s. The Kievan Rus' controlled the fortress from 965 until the 12th century.

Mjölnir

"Thor's Hammer" redirects here. For other uses, see Thor's Hammer (disambiguation). For other uses, see Mjolnir (disambiguation).

In Norse mythology, **Mjölnir** (/ˈmjɒlnɪər/ or /ˈmjɒlnər/ *MYOL-n(ee)r*; also **Mjǫlnir**, **Mjölnir**, **Mjölnir**, **Mjölnir**, **Mjölnir**, **Mjölnir** or **Mjølne**) is the hammer of Thor, a major Norse god associated with thunder. Mjölnir is depicted in Norse mythology as one of the most fearsome weapons, capable of leveling mountains.*[1]*[2]*[3] In his account of Norse mythology, Snorri Sturluson relates how the hammer was made by the dwarven brothers Sindri and Brokkr, and how its characteristically short handle was due to a mishap during its manufacture.

75.1 Name

Mjölnir is usually interpreted as meaning "That which smashes", derived from the verb *mölva* "To smash" (cognate with English *meal*, *mill*); comparable derivations from the same root meaning "hammer" are Slavic *molot* and Latin *malleus* (whence English *mallet*).

An alternative suggestion compares the name to Russian молния (*molniya*) and the Welsh word *mellt*, both words are taken as meaning "lightning". This second theory would make *Mjölnir* the weapon of the storm god identified with lightning, as in the lightning-bolt or vajra in other Indo-European mythologies.*[4]

In the Old Norse texts, Mjölnir is identified as *hamarr* "a hammer", a word that in Old Norse and some modern Norwegian dialects can mean "hammer" as well as "stone, rock, cliff", ultimately derived from an Indo-European word for "stone, stone tool", $h_2\acute{e}\acute{k}m\ddot{o}$; as such it is cognate with Sanskrit *aśman*, meaning "stone, rock, stone tool; hammer" as well as "thunderbolt".*[5]

Mjøl in modern Norwegian (nynorsk) literally means "flour" or "powder", so "Mjølner" (Norwegian spelling) can mean "Pulverizer".

75.2 Norse mythology

75.2.1 Skáldskaparmál

An account of the origin of Mjölnir is found in *Skáldskaparmál* from Snorri's Edda: In this story, Loki bets his head with Sindri (or Eitri) and his brother Brokkr that they could never succeed in making items more beautiful than those of the Sons of Ivaldi (the dwarves who created other precious items for the gods: Odin's spear Gungnir, and Freyr's foldable boat Skíðblaðnir).

Sindri and Brokkr accept Loki's bet and the two brothers begin working. They begin to work in their workshop and Sindri puts a pig's skin in the forge and tells his brother (Brokkr) never to stop working the bellows until he comes and takes out

what he put in. Loki, in disguise as a fly, comes and bites Brokkr on the arm. Nevertheless, he continues to pump the bellows.

Then, Sindri takes out Gullinbursti, Freyr's boar with shining bristles. Next, Sindri puts some gold in the forge and gives Brokkr the same order. Again, Loki, still in the guise of a fly comes and, again, bites Brokkr's neck twice as hard as he had bitten his arm. Just as before, Brokkr continues to work the bellows despite the pain. When Sindri returns, he takes out Draupnir, Odin's ring, which drops eight duplicates of itself every ninth night.

Finally, Sindri puts some iron in the forge and tells Brokkr not to stop pumping the bellows. Loki comes a third time and this time bites Brokkr on the eyelid even harder. The bite is so deep that it draws blood. The blood runs into Brokkr's eyes and forces him stop working the bellows just long enough to wipe his eyes. This time, when Sindri returns, he takes Mjöllnir out of the forge. The handle is shorter than Sindri had planned and so the hammer can only be wielded with one hand.

Despite the flaw in the handle, Sindri and Brokkr win the bet and go to take Loki's head. However, Loki worms his way out of the bet by pointing out that the dwarves would need to cut his neck to remove his head, but Loki's neck was not part of the deal. As a consolation prize, Brokkr sews Loki's mouth shut to teach him a lesson.

The final product is then presented to Thor, and its properties are described, as follows,

75.2.2 Poetic Edda

Thor possessed a formidable chariot, which is drawn by two goats, Tanngrisnir and Tanngnjóstr. A belt, Megingjörð, and iron gloves, Járngreipr, were used to lift Mjölnir. Mjölnir is the focal point of some of Thor's adventures.

This is clearly illustrated in a poem found in the Poetic Edda titled *Prymskviða*. The myth relates that the giant, Prymr, steals Mjölnir from Thor and then demands the goddess Freyja in exchange. Loki, the god notorious for his duplicity, conspires with the other Æsir to recover Mjölnir by disguising Thor as Freyja and presenting him as the "goddess" to Prymr.

At a banquet Prymr holds in honor of the impending union, Prymr takes the bait. Unable to contain his passion for his new maiden with long, blond locks (and broad shoulders), as Prymr approaches the bride by placing Mjölnir on "her" lap, Thor rips off his disguise and destroys Prymr and his giant cohorts.

75.3 Archaeological record

75.3.1 Precedents and comparanda

A precedent of these Viking Age Thor's hammer amulets are recorded for the migration period Alemanni, who took to wearing Roman "Hercules' Clubs" as symbols of Donar. *[7] A possible remnant of these Donar amulets was recorded in 1897, as a custom of Unterinn (South Tyrolian Alps) of incising a T-shape above front doors for protection against evils of all kinds, especially storms. *[8]

75.3.2 Viking Age pendants

About 50 specimens of Mjölnir amulets have been found widely dispersed throughout Scandinavia, dating from the 9th to 11th centuries, most commonly discovered in areas with a strong Christian influence including southern Norway, southeastern Sweden, and Denmark.*[9] Due to the similarity of equal-armed, square crosses featuring figures of Christ on them at around the same time, the wearing of Thor's hammers as pendants may have come into fashion in defiance of the square amulets worn by newly converted Christians in the regions.*[10]

An iron Thor's hammer pendant excavated in Yorkshire, dating to ca. AD 1000 bears an uncial inscription preceded and followed by a cross, interpreted as indicating a Christian owner syncretizing pagan and Christian symbolism.*[11]

A 10th-century soapstone mold found at Trendgården, Jutland, Denmark is notable for allowing the casting of both crucifix and Thor's hammer pendants.*[12] A silver specimen found near Fossi, Iceland (now in the National Museum

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of Iceland) can be interpreted as either a Christian cross or a Thor's hammer. Unusually, the elongated limb of the cross ends in a beast's (perhaps a wolf's) head.

75.3.3 Viking Age depictions

Some image stones and runestones found in Denmark and southern Sweden bear an inscription of a hammer. Runestones depicting Thor's hammer include runestones U 1161 in Altuna, Sö 86 in Åby, Sö 111 in Stenkvista, Sö 140 in Jursta, Vg 113 in Lärkegapet, Öl 1 in Karlevi, DR 26 in Laeborg, DR 48 in Hanning, DR 120 in Spentrup, and DR 331 in Gårdstånga.*[13]*[14] Other runestones included an inscription calling for Thor to safeguard the stone. For example, the stone of Virring in Denmark had the inscription *pur uiki þisi kuml*, which translates into English as "May Thor hallow this memorial." There are several examples of a similar inscription, each one asking for Thor to "hallow" or protect the specific artifact. Such inscriptions may have been in response to the Christians, who would ask for God's protection over their dead.*[15]

75.3.4 Swastika symbol

Further information: Thurmuth sword

According to some scholars, the swastika shape may have been a variant popular in Anglo-Saxon England prior to Christianization, especially in East Anglia and Kent.*[16] Wilson (1894) points out that while the swastika had been "vulgarly called in Scandinavia the hammer of Thor" (in Icelandic: *Thorshamarmerki*, mark of Thor's hammer), the symbol properly so called had a Y or T shape.*[17]

75.4 Modern usage

Most practitioners of Germanic Neopagan faiths wear Mjölnir pendants as a symbol of that faith worldwide. Renditions of Mjölnir are designed, crafted and sold by some Germanic Neopagan groups and individuals.

Some controversy has occurred concerning the potential recognition of the symbol as a religious symbol by the United States government.*[18] In May 2013 the "Hammer of Thor" was added to the list of United States Department of Veterans Affairs emblems for headstones and markers.*[19]*[20]*[21]

- A modern Mjöllnir pendant.
- The coat of arms of the Torsås Municipality, Sweden, features a depiction of Mjöllnir.
- The insignia of Tórshavn, capital of the Faroe Islands, shows Thor's hammer.

75.5 See also

- Battle Axe culture
- Bracteate
- Donar's oak
- Irminsul
- Labrys
- Sun cross

75.6. NOTES 253

- Uchide no kozuchi
- Ukonvasara
- Vajra
- List of mythological objects
- Archaeological record of Mjölnir

75.6 Notes

- [1] Højbjerg, Martin (2011–2014). "Norse Mythology: Items of the Gods and Goddesses". *Norse Mythology*. Retrieved June 17, 2014. Mjölnir is one of the most fearsome weapons, capable of leveling mountains. Thor's hammer can hit any target. After the target is hit, the hammer will return to Thor's right hand all by itself. The hammer can send out lightning bolts.
- [2] Campbell, Hank (February 19, 2013). "Is Thor Mighty Or Just Magic?". Science 2.0. Retrieved June 17, 2014. Science 2.0 fave Dr. Neil Tyson recently tried to bring back the 'Thor is really strong' concept by stating 'If Thor's hammer is made of neutron-star matter, implied by legend, then it weighs as much as a herd of 300-billion elephants' which means only someone really strong could lift it. Of course, it also means it would be changing Earth's gravitational field...
- [3] Barnett, Laura (22 May 2011). "Another View on Thor: Hammer supplier Amanda Coffman sizes up the mystical properties of Mjölnir in Kenneth Branagh's Thor". *The Guardian* (London: Guardian News and Media). Retrieved June 17, 2014. Mjölnir is so powerful it can level entire mountains. I can't imagine any of our hammers doing that, but some models are pretty strong: they're used for breaking up concrete, knocking paving slabs into place, and in the manufacture of cars and aeroplanes. There's a little leather strap on Thor's hammer, too, for attaching it to his wrist. I'm not sure why that's there, really. None of our hammers have that. Thor doesn't even use his.
- [4] Turville-Petre, E.O.G. Myth and Religion of the North: The Religion of Ancient Scandinavia. London: Weidfeld and Nicoson, 1998. p. 81.
- [5] Julius Pokorny, Indogermanisches etymologisches Wörterbuch (1959).
- [6] The Prose Edda, translated by Arthur Gilchrist Brodeur (1916). Þá gaf hann Þór hamarinn ok sagði, at hann myndi mega ljósta svá stórt sem hann vildi, hvat sem fyrir væri, at eigi myndi hamarrinn bila, ok ef hann yrpi honum til, þá myndi hann aldri missa ok aldri fljúga svá langt, at eigi myndi hann sækja heim hönd, ok ef þat vildi, þá var hann svá lítill, at hafa mátti serk sér. En þat var lýi á, ar forskeftit var heldr skammt.
- [7] Werner: "Herkuleskeule und Donar-Amulett". in: Jahrbuch des Römisch-Germanischen Zentralmuseums Mainz, Nr. 11, Mainz, 1966.
- [8] Joh. Adolf Heyl, Volkssagen, Bräuche und Meinungen aus Tirol (Brixen: Verlag der Buchhandlung des Kath.-polit. Pressvereins, 1897), p. 804.
- [9] Turville-Petre, E.O.G. Myth and Religion of the North: The Religion of Ancient Scandinavia. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1964. p. 83. A recent discovery of a specimen took place in 2012 in Denmark (part of the Strandby Hoard); a pendant necklace in silver of Thor's Hammer discovered during an archaeological dig last year Danish museum officials said Thursday May 16, 2013 that an archaeological dig last year has revealed 365 items from the Viking era, including 60 rare coins. Associated Press, May 2013; strandbyskatten.dk/thors-hammer-fra-skatten.
- [10] Ellis Davidson, H.R. (1965). Gods And Myths Of Northern Europe, p. 81, ISBN 0-14-013627-4
- [11] Schoyen Collection, MS 1708
- [12] This has been interpreted as the property of a craftsman "hedging his bets" by catering to both a Christian and a pagan clientele.
- [13] Holtgård, Anders (1998). "Runeninschriften und Runendenkmäler als Quellen der Religionsgeschichte" . In Düwel, Klaus; Nowak, Sean. Runeninschriften als Quellen Interdisziplinärer Forschung: Abhandlungen des Vierten Internationalen Symposiums über Runen und Runeninschriften in Göttingen vom 4–9 August 1995. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter. p. 727. ISBN 3-11-015455-2.
- [14] McKinnell, John; Simek, Rudolf; Düwel, Klaus (2004). "Gods and Mythological Beings in the Younger Futhark". Runes, Magic and Religion: A Sourcebook. Vienna: Fassbaender. pp. 116–133. ISBN 3-900538-81-6.

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[15] Turville-Petre, E.O.G. *Myth and Religion of the North: The Religion of Ancient Scandinavia*. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1964. p. 82–83.

- [16] Mayr-Harting, Henry, *The Coming of Christianity to Anglo-Saxon England* (1991), p. 3: "Many cremation pots of the early Anglo-Saxons have the swastika sign marked on them, and in some the swastikas seems to be confronted with serpents or dragons in a decorative design. This is a clear reference to the greatest of all Thor's struggles, that with the World Serpent which lay coiled round the earth." Christopher R. Fee, David Adams Leeming, *Gods, Heroes, and Kings: The Battle for Mythic Britain* (2001), p. 31: "The image of Thor's weapon spinning end-over-end through the heavens is captured in art as a swastika symbol (common in Indo-European art, and indeed beyond); this symbol is—as one might expect—widespread in Scandinavia, but it also is common on Anglo-Saxon grave goods of the pagan period, notably in East Anglia and Kent."
- [17] Thomas Wilson (1894), citing Waring, Ceramic Art in Remote Ages, p. 12.
- [18] Hudson Jr., David L.Va. inmate can challenge denial of Thor's Hammer June 6, 2007 at the firstamendmentcenter.org website.
- "National Cemetery Administration: Available Emblems of Belief for Placement on Government Headstones and Markers".
 U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs. Retrieved 12 May 2013. 55 Hammer of Thor
- [20] Elysia. "Hammer of Thor now VA accepted symbol of faith". Llewellyn. Retrieved 12 May 2013.
- [21] Brownlee, John (July 9, 2013). "How Thor's Hammer Made Its Way Onto Soldiers' Headstones: Thor's hammer, Mjölnir, is a weapon of honor and virtue, making it an appealing icon for American soldiers. But its path to becoming an acceptable headstone symbol was anything but easy." . www.fastcodesign.com. Retrieved June 17, 2014. In Norse mythology, Mjölnir (which means "crusher" or "grinder") is a fearsome weapon that can destroy entire mountains with a single blow.... On May 10, 2013, the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs quietly made an update to its official list of approved emblems, adding Thor's hammer, Mjölnir.

75.7 References

• Turville-Petre, E.O.G. *Myth and Religion of the North: The Religion of Ancient Scandinavia*. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1964.

75.8 External links

- A gallery of images of Mjöllnir pendants from archaeological finds
- National Museum of Denmark The Hammer of Thor Past Horizons, June 29, 2014 (includes Danish language video presentation).

75.8. EXTERNAL LINKS 255

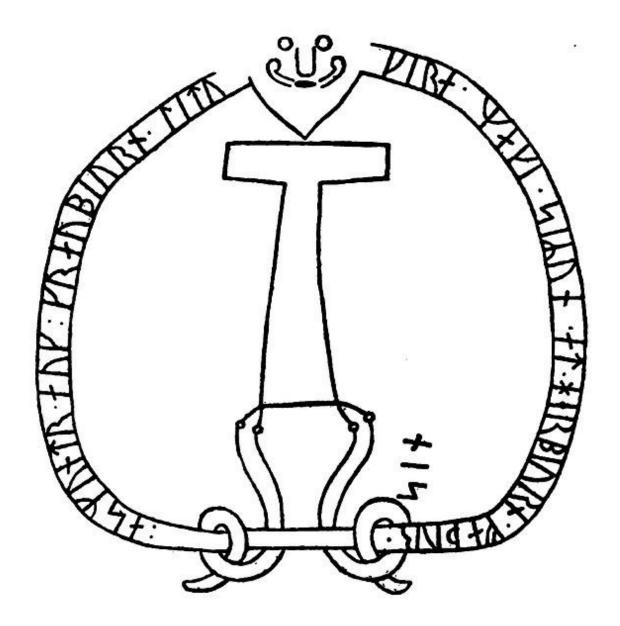


Drawing of a Viking Age gold-plated silver Mjölnir pendant (length 4.6 cm) found at Bredsätra in Öland, Sweden, now kept in the Swedish Museum of National Antiquities.

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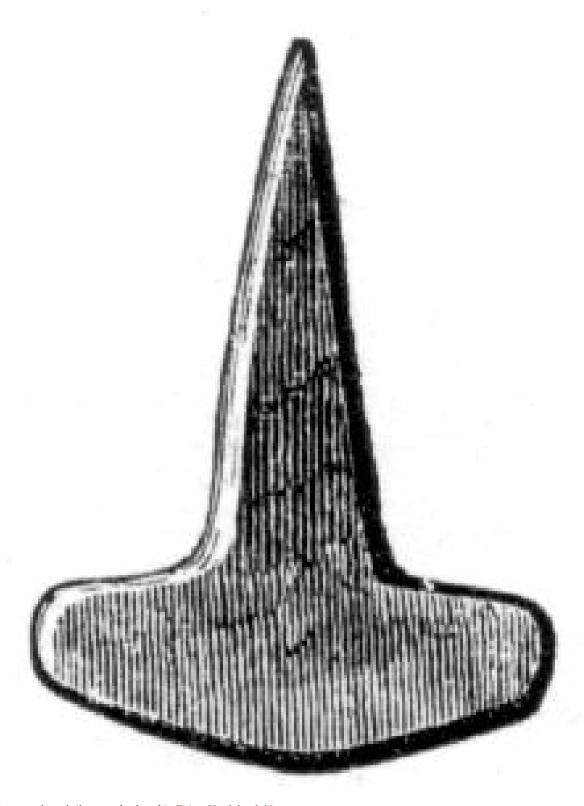


75.8. EXTERNAL LINKS 257



Drawing of hammer depicted on runic inscription Sö 86 located in Åby, Uppland, Sweden.

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Hammer-shaped silver amulet found in Fitjar, Hordaland, Norway.

75.8. EXTERNAL LINKS 259

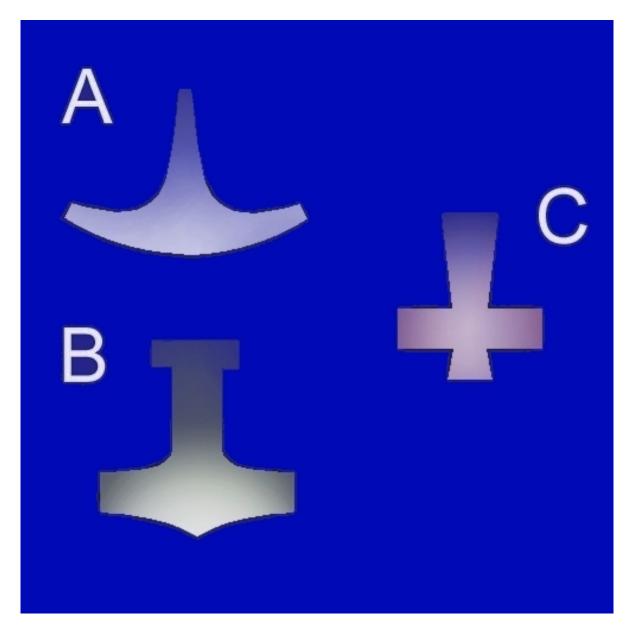


The Stenkvista runestone in Södermanland, Sweden, shows Thor's hammer instead of a cross.

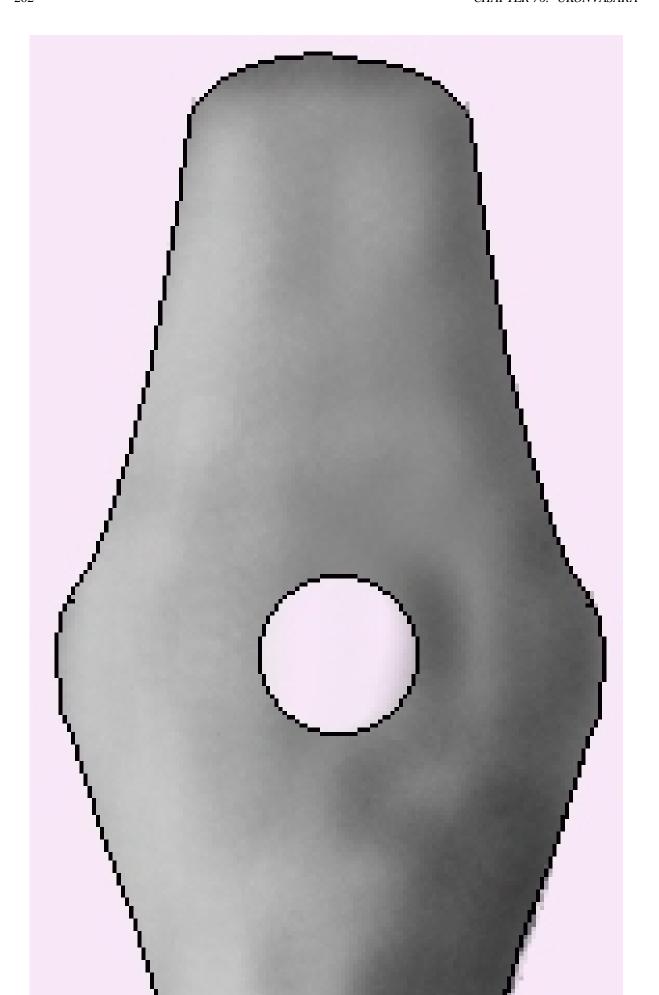
Ukonvasara

Ukonvasara, or **Ukonkirves**, is the symbol and magical weapon of the Finnish thunder god Ukko, similar to Thor's Mjolnir. Ukonvasara means hammer of Ukko; similarly, Ukonkirves means axe of Ukko. It was said that Ukko created lightning with Ukonvasara. Pagan Finns sometimes carry hammer or axe pendants around their necks, much like Christians sometimes wear crosses.

Ukko's hammer was probably a boat-shaped stone axe originally. When stone tools were abandoned with the advent of metalworking, the origins of stone weapons became a mystery. Stone axes, so-called thunderstones (*ukonvaaja* in Finnish), were found in the ground, especially after drenching rains washed away dirt. They were believed to be weapons of Ukko, stone heads of the striking lightning. Shamans collected and held stone-axes because they were believed to hold the power to both heal and damage.



 $Hammer-shaped\ pendants\ were\ carried\ as\ protection\ from\ the\ thunder\ god.\ \textbf{A=Finnish}\ \textbf{Ukonvasara}\ B=Scandinavian\ Thor's\ hammer\ C=Icelandic\ Thor's\ hammer$



Uchide no kozuchi

Uchide-no-Kozuchi (打ち出の小槌) is a legendary Japanese "magic hammer"*[1] which can "tap out" anything wished for.*[2] This treasure is also rendered into English as "magic wishing mallet" *[2] or "lucky hammer," *[3] "the mallet of fortune", etc.

In popular belief, magic wooden hammer is a standard item held in the hand of the iconic deity Daikoku-ten,*[2] who is often represented as figurines, statues, netsukes, and in architecture.

It is also a stock item in popular tales. In *Issun-bōshi* ("*One-Inch Boy*"), the hero gains the mallet defeating an ogre (oni) and amass wealth, while in modern embellishments, he even transforms himself into full adult-size. In *Momotarō* ("Peach Boy"), the mallet is captured from the ogres in Onigashima, alongside the *kakure mino* (raincoat of invisibility) and *kakurekasa* (hat of invisibility)*[3]*[lower-alpha 1]

The notion that ogres possessed this prized mallet dates much earlier than the tales, which are part of the *otogizōshi* collection from the Muromachi Period. It can be traced at as far back as The Tale of Heike (ca. 1240), or, if the instance of use in the work has any historicity, datable to before ca. 1118.

In folkloristics, the uchide no kozuchi is catalogued in the Stith Thompson motif index scheme under ""magic hammer, D 1470.1.46". *[1]

77.1 Issun bōshi

Main article: Issun-bōshi

In the legend, the one-inch tall Issun-boshi, after leaving his parent's home, comes under the employ of a wealthy daimyo, whose daughter is an attractive princess. Although scorned for his height, he is given the job of accompanying the princess. While traveling together, they are attacked by an Oni, who deals with pesky Issun-boshi by swallowing him. He defeats the Oni by pricking him from within with his needle/sword. The Oni spits out Issun-boshi and drops the 'Uchide-no-Kozuchi as he runs away. In the *otogizōshi*, he then shakes out opulent riches with the mallet and becomes a court favorite. In the better-known modernized versions, the princess uses the power of the mallet to grow him to full size. At the end of the story, Issun-bōshi and the princess are married.

77.2 History

77.2.1 Etymology

The word *uchi de no kozuchi* literally translates to "striking-out [little] hammer," *[4] or "hammer that strikes anything out [that is desired]".*[5] In plainer speech it is understood that the hammer is to be shaken*[5] or swung.

77.2.2 Early usage

According to the $H\bar{o}butsush\bar{u}$ (ja) (1179), the mallet is a "wonderful treasure," such that when one goes out into a wide open field, it can be used to tap out a mansion, amusing men and women, useful servants, horse and cattle, food, and articles of clothing.*[6]*[7] However, all the items wished for reputed disappear at the sound of the bell tolling (hence the necessity of using it in a vacant field),*[6] and the moral of this Buddhist sermon-type tale (setsuwa) is that this is no treasure after all.*[8]

In The Tale of Heike is an anecdote whereby a strangely outfitted person moving about in the night, is mistaken for an ogre (oni), and his kindling wood mistaken for the *uchide no kozuchi*, attesting to the belief even then that this was a treasure reputedly owned by the ogres. The anecdote occurs in scroll 6 of *Heike*, under the chapter on Gion no nyōgo (ja) (Lady Gion). One night, near Gion Shrine, a figure is witnessed seemingly with hair like a bed of silver needles, and something glowing in his hand, which people feared to be an ogre, carrying the uchide no kozuchi for which these demon-kind beings are famous. The imperial guardsman Tadamori was ordered to investigate, and he discovered it was just a priest trying to illuminate a light in the chapel. The priest had put straws in his head to prevent getting damp.*[9] The same anecdote also occurs in the *Genpei jōsuiki*, which states that the priest was blowing on the embers in an earthenware container to keep it from going out, and when he did the straws on his head would illuminate and appear like silver needles.*[10] If this was a historical event, it happened sometime before or around the time when Kiyomori (born 1118) was conceived by the Lady Nyogo, who was then mistress to Retired Emperor Shirakawa, and Kiyomori's putative father Tadamori being the guardsman sent on the oni-hunt; but the tale is likely a "fable about Kiyomori's royal parentage." *[11]

It has been observed that the treasures of the oni in the later tale of Momotarō incorporated this older lore about treasures the ogres possessed.*[10]*[12] It has been observed that the same set of treasures as Momotarō's oni, or practically so, are described in *The Tale of Hōgen*, regarding Minamoto no Tametomo traveling to Onigashima island.*[12] Tametomo discovers that the islanders claimed to be descendants of oni, and named their now-lost treasures as the "cloak of invisibility, the hat of invisibility, floating shoes, sinking shoes, and sword" in some texts,*[13] and in older variant texts (Nakai codex group) one treasure is *uchide no kutsu* (shoes of wishing), a likely scribal error for *uchide no kozuchi* according to scholars.*[12]

77.3 Popular culture

- The hammer, called the "Midge Mallet", is used in the video game *Secret of Mana* to make playable characters smaller or to grow back to normal size.
- In the anime *Gintama*, appears a gadget called "Uchide no Kozuchi Z503", which can reduce the size of those who are kicked with it.
- In the video game $\bar{O}kami$, there is a character called Issun (who is loosely based on Issun-boshi) who follows the main character. Along with Issun, the Uchide's Mallet (referred to as the "Lucky Mallet" in the English localization) also appears in the game, although it is used to shrink the protagonist (a wolf avatar of the Shinto sun goddess Okami Amaterasu) instead, to Issun's size (rather than the other way around) granting one access to otherwise inaccessible areas. After obtaining it from the Sunken Ship, the mallet is shown to have a will of its own as it flies away, forcing Amaterasu and Issun to chase it. Upon catching up to it they discover that the mallet was not trying to run away, but instead was helping them in locating the source of a poisonous mist (which has been causing problems for Amaterasu and Issun), and its shrinking power helps them sneak into the Imperial Palace, eventually allowing them to enter the Emperor's body and defeat the boss Blight (source of the poison mist).
- In the video game *The World Ends with You*, is one of several secret items that can be found by the player after beating the game. It is an accessory that increases the amount of experience the wearer gets (unlike the legend it has no effect on the characters size in the game and is simply just another accessory which is reference to the Japanese legend). Its in-game description is "The miniature golden hammer of Muromachi-period legends that lets you change your height at will. Perfect for short folks!" (referencing the legend). Random NPCs also makes a reference to the legendary hammer. In the English localization, the name for this item is *Lucky Mallet*.

77.4. SEE ALSO 265

• In the anime series, Folktales from Japan, the Mallet appears twice in the series. First in the 2nd and later in 63rd episode of the series; both appears are in the segment named "Little One Inch".

- Some *Maneki Neko* figures also appear with the *Uchide no kozuchi* in the right hand, evoking Daikoku-ten.
- The hammer is a recurring item in early Final Fantasy games and is used to cure the user of the status effect 'Small'.
- Sukuna Shinmyoumaru, the final boss of the 14th Touhou game *Double Dealing Character* claims to be a descendant of Issun-boshi. She holds Uchide's Mallet, which is directly responsible for much of the game's plot.

77.4 See also

- Aladdin's lamp. "Aladdin's Mallet" is one rendition of uchide-no-kozuchi.*[4]
- cornucopia, the horn of plenty.
- Mjolnir, the Norse god Thor's magic hammer

77.5 Footnotes

77.5.1 Explanatory notes

[1] Antoni 1969 renders the others as "the magical cloak, the cap of invisibility" which is redundant; perhaps for the latter "cap"

77.5.2 Citation

- [1] Ikeda, Hiroko (1952). "A Type and Motif-Index of Japanese Folk-Literature" . Ff communications 209: 148.
- [2] Sargent, G.W. (1969) [1959], The Japanese Family Storehouse, CUP Archive, pp. 85; 199, note4
- [3] Antoni, Klaus (1991). "Momotarō (The Peach Boy) and the Spirit of Japan: Concerning the Function of a Fairy Tale in Japanese Nationalism of the Early Shōwa Age". *Asian Folklore Studies*. 50 (1): 155–188. doi:10.2307/1178189.
- [4] Sakai, Atsuharu (1952), "(237) Uchide-no-kozuchi or Aladdin's Mallet", *Japan in a Nutshell: Japanese psychology, tradition, customs and manners*, Yamagata Print. Company, p. 162
- [5] Garis, Frederic de (2013) [1935], We Japanese: being descriptions of many of the customs, manners, ceremonies, festivals, arts and crafts of the Japanese, Routledge, p. 566- (Yamagata press, 1935, 1936, 1937; 富士屋ホテル 1940)
- [6] 平康頼 (Taira no Yasunori) (1919), 足立, 四郎吉, ed., 大日本風教叢書 第 1 輯: 342-3 http://dl.ndl.go.jp/info:ndljp/pid/957220 lurl= missing title (help) lchapter= ignored (help)
- [7] 日本大百科全書 (小学館) **3**, 1985: 142 http://books.google.co.jp/books?id=_-jSAAAAMAAJ lurl= missing title (help) lchapter= ignored (help)
- [8] 高橋,亨(2004). "無名草子における引用関連文献の総合的調査と研究".
- [9] Bialock, David T. (2007), Eccentric Spaces, Hidden Histories, Stanford University Press, p. 292, ISBN 0804767645
- [10] 井乃, 香樹 (Ino, Kōju) (1941), 紀記の神話と桃太郎 (Kiki no shinwa to momotarō), 建設社出版部
- [11] Bialock 2007, p. 294
- [12] 志田, 義秀 (Shida, Gishū) (1941), " 桃太郎概論 (momotarō gairon)", 日本の伝説と童話 (Nihon no densetsu to dōwa), 大東出版社, pp. 305-6
- [13] 井乃 1941, p. 175-

Parashu

Parashu (Sanskrit: Paraśu) is the Sanskrit word for battle-axe. It is generally wielded with two hands but could also be used with only one.

78.1 Construction

The parashu could be double edged or bladed or single-bladed with a spike on the non cutting edge. It usually measures between 3-5 feet though some are as long as 7 feet. The parashu is usually made of iron or wootz steel. The cutting edge is broader than the edge which is attached to the haft. The haft is often tied with a leather sheet to provide a good grip.

78.2 In Hinduism

The parashu is the weapon of the god Shiva who gave it to Parashurama, sixth avatar of Vishnu, whose name means "Rama with the axe" and also taught him its mastery. He is regarded as the founder of the northern style of kalaripayat. Parashurama was the guru of Dronacharya, the guru who instructed the Pandavas in the epic of the Mahabharata. Bhishma and Karna, half brother of Pandava also took instruction in weaponry from Parashurama, a disciple of lord Shiva, and was known to have terrible temper having lost his father to the evil asura. In his anger, Parashurama used the parashu to get rid of the all the Earth's tyrannical kshatriya caste twenty-one times over. Parashurama's weapon had supernatural powers. It had four cutting edges, one on each end of the blade head and one on each end of the shaft.

The parashu was known as the most lethal close combat weapons of the epics. It is also one of the weapons of Lord Shiva and Goddess Durga and is still depicted on their idols throughout India.

Sharur (mythological weapon)

Sharur, which means "smasher of thousands" is the weapon and mythic symbol of the god Ninurta. Sumerian mythic sources describe it as an enchanted talking mace. It has been suggested as a possible precursor for similar objects in other mythology such as Arthurian lore.

79.1 Role and powers in mythology

Sharur plays a prominent role in an incident in which Ninurta is described as using it to defeat Asag, a monstrous demon; Sharur has the power to fly across vast distances without impediment and communicate with its wielder.

This myth receives its most complete treatment in the epic Lugal-e, which in English is rendered as "The Exploits of Ninurta (O Warrior King)".<ref name="The Electronic Text Corpus of Sumerian Literature"NLa>Black, J.A., G. Cunningham, E. Robson, G. Zolyomi (1998). *The Exploits of Ninurta (or 'Ninurta Lugal-E')*. Oxford.</ref><ref name="The Electronic Text Corpus of Sumerian Literature"NLb>Black, J.A., G. Cunningham, E. Robson, G. Zolyomi (1998). *Ninurta*. Oxford.</ref> According to this text, Sharur's role in the battle is not only as a weapon. It provides crucial intelligence to the hero, acting as an emissary between the god Enlil and Ninurta and relating to him the former's will, including a command to slay the architect Kur, a primeval serpent god venerated in Babylon, as well as a strategy to defeat Asag. Kur is associated with mountains and the primordial elements.*[1]

79.2 Powers

Apart from its aforementioned ability to fly and communicate with its wielder, Sharur may also take the form of a winged lion, a common motif in Sumerian and Akkadian lore.

79.3 See also

- Excalibur
- Durandal
- List of mythological weapons
- Asakku
- Mjølnir

79.4 References

[1] "Sharur" . Article90.learningthroughstories.net. 2011-10-06. Retrieved 2012-07-07.

Gada (mace)

The **gada** (Sanskrit: गदा *gadā*, Malay: *gedak*) is a blunt mace or club from India. Made either of wood or metal, it consists essentially of a spherical head mounted on a shaft, with a spike on the top. Outside India, the gada was also adopted in Southeast Asia, where it is still used in silat.

The gada is the main weapon of the Hindu god Hanuman. As the god of strength, Hanuman is traditionally worshipped by wrestlers in South and Southeast Asia. The god Vishnu also carries a gada named Kaumodaki in one of his four hands. In the Mahabharata epic, the fighters Bhima, Duryodhana, Jarasandha, Balarama and others were said to be masters of the gada.

80.1 Gada-yuddha

The martial art of wielding the gada is known as **gada-yuddha**. It can either be wielded singly or in pairs, and can be handled in twenty different ways. Various gada-yuddha techniques are mentioned in the Agni Purana and Mahabharata such as aahat (आहत), gomutra (गोमूत्र), prabrita (प्रभृत), kamalasan (कमलासन), udarvagatra (ऊर्ध्वगत्र), namita (नमित), vamadakshina (वामदक्षणि), aavrita (आवृत्त), paraavrita (परावृत्त), padodrita (पदोद्धृत), avaplata (अवपलत), hansmarga (हंसमारग) and vibhag (विभाग).

By means of gunpowder it could also be used as a projectile weapon of war. Its principal use was to strike the enemy either from a raised place or from both sides and strike terror into the enemy, especially of the gomutra array.*[1]

80.2 Exercise equipment

The gada is one of the traditional pieces of training equipment in Hindu physical culture, and is common in the akhara of north India. Maces of various weights and heights are used depending on the strength and skill level of the practitioner. For training purposes, one or two wooden gada (*mudgar*) are swung behind the back in several different ways and is particularly useful for building grip strength and shoulder endurance. The Great Gama was known for excessive use of gada. Winners in a kushti contest are often awarded with a gada.

Chi'ishi, a karate conditioning equipment and its exercise pattern was inspired by the gada and mugdar. The war clubs were also inspired by gada.*[2]

80.3 See also

- Mace (club)
- Weapons of silat

80.4 References

- [1] Weapons of War in Hindu Literature
- [2] Club History

Sudarshana Chakra

The **Sudarshana Chakra** (Sanskrit: মুবর্গন অক্র) is a spinning, disk-like weapon with 108 serrated edges used by the Hindu god Vishnu. The Sudarshana Chakra is generally portrayed on the right rear hand of the four hands of Vishnu, who also holds a shankha (conch shell), a Gada (mace) and a padma (lotus).

The Sudarshana Chakra may be depicted as an ayudhapurusha (anthropomorphic form). He is depicted as a fierce form of Vishnu. While the Sudarshana Chakra is depicted as a subordinate figure with Vishnu, in many South Indian Vishnu temples, the Chakra as an ayudhapurusha is worshipped in its own shrine attached to the central temple.

According to the Puranas, Sudarshana Chakra is used for the ultimate destruction of an enemy. The depiction of Vishnu with Sudarshana Chakra also means that Vishnu is the keeper-owner of the celestial bodies and heavens.

81.1 Etymology

The word Sudarshana is derived from two Sanskrit words – $Su(\overline{H})$ meaning "good/auspicious" and Darshana (दर्शन) meaning "vision". Hence, the word Sudarshana collectively means "vision of which is auspicious". Sudarshana is generally worshiped during Homas to ward off negative powers or vibrations.*[1]

The word *chakra* is derived from the word *Chruhu* (meaning *movement* and *kruhu* (meaning *to do*. Hence, chakra collectively means the one which is mobile. Among all the Vedic weapons, Sudarshana Chakra is the only mobile weapon.* [2]

81.2 Legends

This Chakra is given by Lord Shiva There are various legends related to the origins of the Sudarshana Chakra.

The Sudarshana Chakra was made by the architect of gods, Vishvakarma. Vishvakarma's daughter Sanjana was married to Surya, the Sun God. Due to the Sun's blazing light and heat, she was unable to go near the Sun. She complained to her father about this. Vishvakarma took the Sun and made him shine less so that his daughter would be able to hug the Sun. The left over Sun "dust" was collected by Vishvakarma and made into three divine objects. The first one was the aerial vehicle Pushpaka Vimana, the second being the Trishula (Trident) of the god Shiva, and the third was the Sudarshana Chakra of Vishnu. The Chakra is described to have 10 million spikes in two rows moving in opposite directions to give it a serrated edge.

Sudarshana Chakra is considered to be the most powerful weapon in Hindu mythology. When it pursued sage Durvasa, neither Lord Brahama nor Lord Shiva could stop it. *[3]

Sudarshana Chakra was used to cut the corpse of Sati, the consort of Shiva into 51 pieces after she gave up her life by throwing herself in a yagna (fire sacrifice) of her father Daksha. It is said that Shiva, in grief, carried around her lifeless

body and was inconsolable. The 51 parts of the goddess' body were then tossed about in different parts of the Indian subcontinent and came to be known as "Shakti Peethas".

81.3 In scripture

The use of the Sudarshan Chakra is occasionally mentioned in the Hindu texts of Rigveda, Yajurveda and Puranas, as an ultimate weapon of law, order and preservation to eliminate the enemy. Such enemies are enumerated variously as rakshasas, asura, and vikrutatma.

In one such instance, as scribed in the stanzas of the Mahabharat, Lord Shri Krishna, the Avatar of Lord Vishnu, beheads Shishupala with the use of the Sudarshan Chakra, for his rapacious behaviour (committing 100 mistakes each worthy of death) at the Rajsuya yagna celebration of Emperor Yudhishthira. It was also used to cut the celestial mountain Mandrachal Parvat for churning the ocean of milk (Samudra Manthan).

81.4 Other names

In Tamil, the Sudarshan Chakra is also known as Chakrath Azhwar (translated as Ring/Circlet of God).

The Chakri Dynasty, the current ruling house of Thailand, is named after this weapon.

81.5 Sudarshan Homam

This homam is performed by invoking Lord Sudarshan along with his consort Vijayavalli into the sacrificial fire. This homam is very popular in South India.

81.6 Temples of Sudarshan

- Sri Sudarshana Bhagavan Temple, Nagamangala
- Sri Sudarshana Sannidhi at Sriranganatha temple, Srirangapattana
- Chakrapani Temple, Kumbakonam
- Thirumogur Temple, Madurai
- Chakkarathalwar at Srirangam, temple
- Chakkarathalwar at Sri Devanatha Swamy Temple (Kanchi Varadhar Temple), Kancheepuram
- Anjumoorthy (Five Deities) Temple, at Anjumoorthy Mangalam, in Palakkad district (The main deity of this temple
 is Sudarshan).
- Sree Vallabha Temple, Thiruvalla in Pathanamthitta district
- Thuravoor temple, Allapuzha district. where Narasimha and Sudarshana moorthi is main deitys

81.7 See also

Chakra

81.8. FURTHER READING 273



Sudarshana Chakra depicted as an ayudhapurusha and fierce aspect of his owner Vishnu.

81.8 Further reading

- Hindu Janajagruti Samiti, "How did Lord Krishna acquire Sudarshan Chakra?" and the composition of Sudarshan Chakra
- Vishnu's Flaming Wheel: The Iconography of the Sudarsana-Cakra (New York, 1973) by W. E. Begley
- "Ancient Vishnu idol found in Russian town", *Times of India* (4 Jan 2007)

81.9 References

- [1] "Sudarshan Homa" . Durvasala. Retrieved 2012-03-07.
- [2] HJS. "Origin and Meaning of Sudarshan Chakra" . Retrieved 2012-03-11.
- [3] http://www.vedicyagyacenter.com/articles/Bhakta-Ambarisha.html

Narayanastra

The Narayanastra (IAST: nārāyaṇastra, sanskrit: नारायणास्त्र)(or Narainastra) was the personal weapon of lord Vishnu in his Narayana(or Naraina) form. This astra ("weapon" in Sanskrit) in turn fires a powerful tirade of millions of deadly missiles simultaneously. The intensity of the shower increases with increase in resistance. The only way of defense towards this missile, is to show total submission before the missiles hit. This in turn will cause this weapon to stop and spare the target.

Ashwathama, a Kuru warrior-hero in the epic Mahabharata unleashes this weapon on the Pandava forces. Lord Krishna, who is an Avatar of Vishnu tells the Pandavas and their warriors to drop their weapons and lie down on the ground, so that they all surrender completely to the power of the weapon. It was also said that this weapon can be used only once in a war and if one tries to use it twice, then it would devour the user's own army.

When it was used, Ekadasha (Eleven) Rudras appeared in the sky to destroy Pandavas. Millions of types of weapons like Chakra, Gadha, ultra sharp arrows appeared in rage to destroy them. Who ever tried to offend were destroyed. Shri Krishna who knew how to cool down the Narayanastra advised Pandavas and their army to immediately drop all types and sorts of weapons from their hands and utterly surrender to the great astra of Lord Vishnu. Everybody does the same and survives.

When targeted, the Pandava hero Bhima refuses to surrender thinking that it a cowardice act, and attacks the downpour of fiery arrows. The Narayana weapon concentrates its shower on him, and he gets steadily exhausted. However, he was not killed as Krishna and his brothers restrain him at the right time.

82.1 See also

- Wars of Hindu History
- Mahabharata

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{ {Launching of theNarayana Astra byAswatthama is described in detail at the last part of the Drona Parva in the Mahabharat, that is after the assassination of Drona. Learning about the way his father was killed Aswatthama becomes sad and at the same time furious. He walks towards the Panda camp declaring to Duryodhana that he was going to turn the Pandavas and all their soldiers into ashes by launching the Narayana Astra which he alone is capable of doing. He said that neither Arjuna nor Krishna too knew about the launching or withdrawal of this weapon. When Aswatthama launched the weapon a terrific roar was aroused, as a result of which the earth, mountains, oceans, gods, and demons were distressed. (Reference: WWW.rsvidyapeetha.ac.in/ the Mahabharata/sunmmary/eng/7.pdf

Vajra

For the mythical king of the Yadava dynasty, see Vajra (king).

Vajra is a Sanskrit word meaning both thunderbolt and diamond.*[1] Additionally, it is a weapon which is used as a ritual object to symbolize both the properties of a diamond (indestructibility) and a thunderbolt (irresistible force).

It is also known as *vajram* (Tamil), *bojro* (Bengali), *bajra* (Malay), *dorje* (Tibetan),*[1]*[2]*[3] *dorji* (Dzongkha), *wajra* (Indonesian), *jīngāng* (Chinese), *geumgangjeo* (Korean), *kongōsho* (Japanese) and Очир ochir / Базар Bazar (Mongolian).

The vajra is essentially a type of club with a ribbed spherical head. The ribs may meet in a ball-shaped top, or they may be separate and end in sharp points with which to stab. The vajra is used symbolically by the dharma traditions of Buddhism, Jainism and Hinduism, often to represent firmness of spirit and spiritual power.*[4] The use of the vajra as a symbolic and ritual tool spread from India along with Indian religion and culture to other parts of Asia.

83.1 Early descriptions

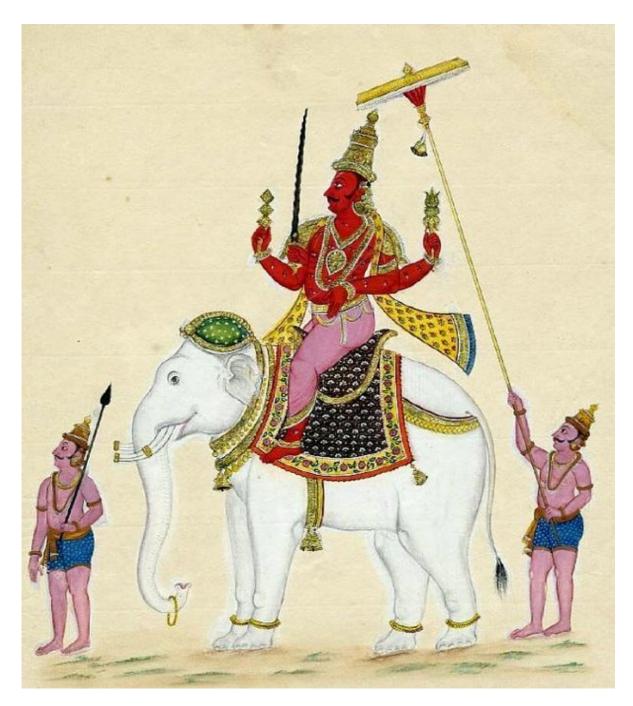
83.1.1 In the Rigveda

The earliest mention of the vajra is in the Rigveda, a part of four Vedas. It is described as the weapon of Indra, the god of heaven and the chief deity of the Rigvedic pantheon. Indra is described as using the vajra to kill sinners and ignorant persons.*[5] The Rigveda states that the weapon was made for Indra by Tvastar, the maker of divine instruments. The associated story describes Indra using the vajra, which he held in his hand, to slay the asura Vritra, who took the form of a serpent.*[6]

On account of his skill in wielding the vajra, some epithets used for Indra in the Rigveda were *Vajrabhrit* (bearing the vajra), *Vajravat* or *Vajrin* (armed with the vajra), *Vajradaksina* (holding the vajra in his right hand), and *Vajrabahu* or *Vajrahasta* (holding the vajra in his hand). The association of the Vajra with Indra was continued with some modifications in the later Puranic literature, and in Buddhist works. Buddhaghosa, a major figure of Theravada Buddhism in the 5th century, identified the Bodhisattva Vajrapani with Indra.*[7]

83.1.2 In the Puranas

Many later Puranas describe the vajra, with the story modified from the Rigvedic original. One major addition involves the role of the Sage Dadhichi. According to one account, Indra, the king of the deva was once driven out of devaloka by an asura named Vritra. The asura was the recipient of a boon whereby he could not be killed by any weapon that was known till the date of his receiving the boon and additionally that no weapon made of wood or metal could harm him.*[8]) Indra, who had lost all hope of recovering his kingdom was said to have approached Shiva who could not help him. Indra along with Shiva and Brahma went to seek the aid of Vishnu. Vishnu revealed to Indra that only the weapon made from the bones of the sage Dadhichi would defeat Vritra.*[8] Indra and the other deva therefore approached the sage, whom



Hindu god Indra riding on Airavata carrying a vajra

Indra had once beheaded, and asked him for his aid in defeating Vritra. Dadhichi acceded to the deva's request but said that he wished that he had time to go on a pilgrimage to all the holy rivers before he gave up his life for them.*[9] Indra then brought together all the waters of the holy rivers to Naimisharanya,*[9] thereby allowing the sage to have his wish fulfilled without a further loss of time. Dadhichi is then said to have given up his life by the art of yoga after which the gods fashioned the vajrayudha from his spine. This weapon was then used to defeat the asura, allowing Indra to reclaim his place as the king of devaloka.

Another version of the story exists where Dadhichi was asked to safeguard the weapons of the gods as they were unable to match the arcane arts being employed by the asura to obtain them. Dadhichi is said to have kept at the task for a very

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A vajra

long time and finally tiring of the job, he is said to have dissolved the weapons in sacred water which he drank.*[10]) The deva returned a long time later and asked him to return their weapons so that they might defeat the asura, headed by Vritra, once in for all. Dadhichi however told them of what he had done and informed them that their weapons were now a part of his bones. However, Dadhichi, realising that his bones were the only way by which the deva could defeat the asura willingly gave his life in a pit of mystical flames he summoned with the power of his austerities.*[10] Brahma is then said to have fashioned a large number of weapons from Dadhichi's bones, including the vajrayudha, which was fashioned from his spine. The deva are then said to have defeated the asura using the weapons thus created.

There have also been instances where the war god Skanda (Murugan) is described as holding a vajra.*[11] Skanda is also the name of a Bodhisattva in Mahayana Buddhism who wields a vajra.

83.2 In Vajrayana Buddhism

In Buddhism the vajra is the symbol of Vajrayana, one of the three major branches of Buddhism. Vajrayana is translated as "Thunderbolt Way" *[12] or "Diamond Way" and can imply the thunderbolt experience of Buddhist enlightenment or *bodhi*. It also implies indestructibility, *[13] just as diamonds are harder than other gemstones.

In Tantric Buddhism (Vajrayana) the vajra and ghanta (bell) are used in many rites by a lama or any Vajrayana practitioner of sadhana. The vajra is a male polysemic symbol that represents many things for the tantrika. The vajra is representative of upaya (skilful means) whereas its companion tool, the bell which is a female symbol, denotes prajna (wisdom). Some



A viśvavajra or "double vajra" appears in the emblem of Bhutan

deities are shown holding each the vajra and bell in separate hands, symbolizing the union of the forces of compassion and wisdom, respectively.

In the tantric traditions of Buddhism, the vajra is a symbol for the nature of reality, or *sunyata*, indicating endless creativity, potency, and skillful activity. The term is employed extensively in tantric literature: the term for the spiritual teacher is the *vajracharya*; instead of bodhisattva, we have *vajrasattva*, and so on. The practice of prefixing terms, names, places, and so on by vajra represents the conscious attempt to recognize the transcendental aspect of all phenomena; it became part of the process of "sacramentalizing" the activities of the spiritual practitioner and encouraged him to engage all his psychophysical energies in the spiritual life.

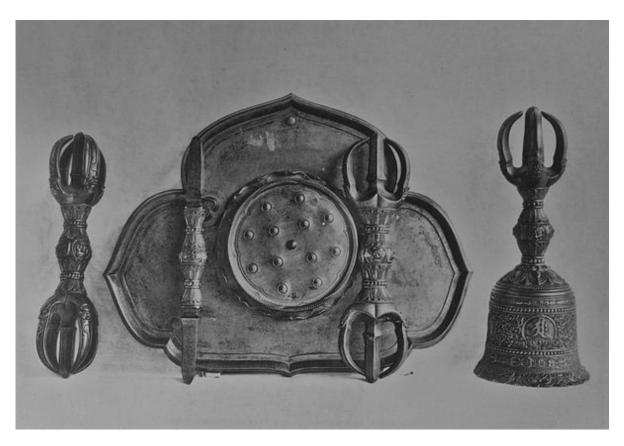
An instrument symbolizing vajra is also extensively used in the rituals of the tantra. It consists of a spherical central section, with two symmetrical sets of five prongs, which are out from lotus blooms on either side of the sphere and come to a point at two points equidistant from the centre, thus giving it the appearance of a "diamond sceptre", which is how the term is sometimes translated.

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Indra's Vajra as the privy seal of King Rama VI of Thailand

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Vajra pestles, vajra bell and vajra's tray: 五鈷杵 gokosho, 独鈷杵 tokkosho, 金剛盤 kongōban, 三鈷杵 sankosho and 五鈷鈴 gokorei.

Various figures in Tantric iconography are represented holding or wielding the vajra. Three of the most famous of these are Vajrasattva,*[4] Vajrapani, and Padmasambhava. Vajrasattva (lit. vajra-being) holds the vajra, in his right hand, to his heart. The figure of the Wrathful Vajrapani (lit. vajra in the hand) brandishes the vajra, in his right hand, above his head. Padmasambhava holds the vajra above his right knee in his right hand.

83.3 Symbolism

The vajra is made up of several parts. In the center is a sphere which represents Sunyata,*[13] the primordial nature of the universe, the underlying unity of all things. Emerging from the sphere are two eight petaled lotus flowers.*[3] One represents the phenomenal world (or in Buddhist terms Samsara), the other represents the noumenal world (Nirvana). This is one of the fundamental dichotomies which are perceived by the unenlightened. The physical manifestation of the vajra, also called dorje in this context, is the male organ.

Arranged equally around the mouth of the lotus are two, four, or eight creatures which are called makara. These are mythological half-fish, half-crocodile creatures*[4] made up of two or more animals, often representing the union of opposites, (or a harmonisation of qualities that transcend our usual experience). From the mouths of the makara come tongues which come together in a point.*[4]

The five-pronged vajra (with four makara, plus a central prong) is the most commonly seen vajra. There is an elaborate system of correspondences between the five elements of the noumenal side of the vajra, and the phenomenal side. One important correspondence is between the five "poisons" with the five wisdoms. The five poisons are the mental states that obscure the original purity of a being's mind, while the five wisdoms are the five most important aspects of the enlightened mind. Each of the five wisdoms is also associated with a Buddha figure. (see also Five Wisdom Buddhas)

The following are the five poisons and the analogous five wisdoms with their associated Buddha figures:

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83.4 In popular culture

• Param Vir Chakra, India's highest war time military decoration has a motif of Vajra, the mythic weapon of Indra created by the bones donated by sage Dadhichi, as tribute to his sacrifice.*[14]*[15]

- Bangalore Metropolitan Transport Corporation Volvo B7RLE services are called as vajra
- In the fictional Hachibushū Legend of Heavenly Sphere Shurato, Shurato has a black vajra as his main weapon.

83.5 See also

- Diamond Sutra
- Tibetan art
- Phurba
- Prajnaparamita
- Triratna
- Trishula
- Vajradhara
- Three Vajras

83.6 References

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- [3] Vajra Dorje Benzar Thunderbolt Firespade Keraunos
- [4] Ritual Implements in Tibetan Buddhism: A Symbolic Appraisal
- [5] Rigveda 2.12
- [6] Rigveda 1.32, translated by Ralph T.H. Griffith
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83.7. FURTHER READING 283

83.7 Further reading

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83.8 External links

- The Diamond Sutra, also called the Vajra Cutter Sutra, available in multiple languages from the FPMT
- The Essential Songs of Milarepa / VI. Songs About Vajra Love 46. Answer to Dakini Tzerima
- Vajra Love—Essays from the Sites of Keith Dowman

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Vajrasattva holds the vajra in his right hand and a bell in his left hand.

Xiuhcoatl

For the rifle, see FX-05 Xiuhcoatl.

In Aztec religion, **Xiuhcoatl** /ʃimˈkoːaːt͡f/ was a mythological serpent, it was regarded as the spirit form of Xiuhtecuhtli, the Aztec fire deity, and was also an atlatl wielded by Huitzilopochtli. Xiuhcoatl is a Classical Nahuatl word that literally translates as "turquoise serpent"; it also carries the symbolic and descriptive meaning, "fire serpent".

Xiuhcoatl was a common subject of Aztec art, including illustrations in Aztec codices and its use as a back ornament on representations of both Xiuhtecuhtlu and Huitzilopochtli.*[1] Xiuhcoatl is interpreted as the embodiment of the dry season and was the weapon of the sun.*[2] The royal diadem (or *xiuhuitzolli*, "pointed turquoise thing") of the Aztec emperors apparently represented the tail of the Xiuhcoatl, the fire serpent.*[3]

84.1 Attributes

Xiuhcoatl was typically depicted with a sharply back-turned snout and a segmented body. Its tail resembled the trapeze-and-ray year sign, and probably does represent that symbol. In Nahuatl, the word *xihuitl* means "year", "turquoise" and "grass". The tail of Xiuhcoatl is often marked with the Aztec symbol for "grass". The body of the Xiuhcoatl was wrapped with knotted strips of paper, linking the serpent to bloodletting and sacrifice.*[4]

In the Postclassic period, the Xiuhcoatl fire serpent was associated with the three concepts associated with its tail-sign; turquoise, grass and the solar year. All three of these concepts were associated with fire in central Mexico during the Postclassic, with dry grass and the solar year being closely identified with fire and solar heat. Page 46 of the pre-Columbian Codex Borgia depicts four smoking Xiuhcoatl serpents arranged around a burning turquoise mirror. A turquoise-rimmed mirror has been found at the Maya city of Chichen Itza, with four fire serpents circling the rim. The archaeological site of Tula has warrior columns on Mound B that bear mirrors on their backs, also surrounded by four Xiuhcoatl fire serpents.*[4]

Although the Fire Serpent can be easily traced back to the Early Postclassic period in Tula, its ultimate origins are unclear. During the Classic Period, the War Serpent of Teotihuacan was probably a forerunner of Xiuhcoatl, it was also depicted with the grass symbol, flames and the trapeze-and-ray year symbol.*[4]

84.2 Mythology

Xiuhcoatl was considered to be the nahual, or spirit form, of the Aztec fire god Xiuhtecuhtli.*[5] It was a lightning-like weapon borne by Huitzilopochtli.*[6] With it, soon after his birth he pierced his sister Coyolxauhqui, destroying her, and also defeated the Centzon Huitznahua.*[7] This incident is illustrated on a fragment of broken sculpture excavated from the Great Temple of Tenochtitlan. The fragment was originally a part of a large stone disk that depicted the fallen Coyolxauhqui with the Xiuhcoatl fire serpent penetrating her chest. This Xiuhcoatl wielded by Huitzilopochtli symbolises the forces of darkness being driven out by the fiery rays of the sun.*[4]

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An Aztec sculpture of Xiuhcoatl from Texcoco, now in the British Museum.*[1]

84.3. RITUAL 287



Huitzilopochtli as depicted in the Codex Borbonicus. Xiuhcoatl is in his right hand.

Tonatiuh, the Sun god, was guided across the sky by Xiuhcoatl, and was used by him as a weapon against his underworld enemies, the stars and the moon.*[8]

84.3 Ritual

During the Panquetzaliztli ceremony, Xiuhcoatl was represented by a paper serpent with red feathers emerging from its open maw to represent flames. During the ceremony, burning torches also symbolised Xiuhcoatl and a serpent dance was performed.*[9]

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84.4 Notes

- [1] The British Museum.
- [2] López Austin 2002, p.142.
- [3] Olivier & López Luján, p.85.
- [4] Miller & Taube 1993, 2003, pp.188-189.
- [5] Fernández 1992, 1996, pp.107, 160.
- [6] Read & Gonzalez 2000, pp.194, 230.
- [7] Read & Gonzalez 2000, pp.194, 230. Miller & Taube 1993, 2003, p.188.
- [8] Matos Moctezuma & Solis Olguín 2002, p.414.
- [9] Matos Moctezuma 1988, p.140.

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Arrow of Brahma

The Arrow of Brahma is from Hindu writings. It is also an implement in a ritual of the Theravada Buddhists.

85.1 Hindu History

In Hindu History, the demi-god Rama (Ramachandra) faced the demon king of Sri-Lanka, Ravana. Rama shot arrows and knocked off each of Ravana's ten heads, but new ones grew immediately. The new heads doubled Ravana's strength. Finally, Rama fired the arrow of Brahma that had been imparted to him by Agastya, a sage and heavenly historian, while Rama, Sita, and Lakshmana were exiled in Dandaka Forest. The arrow of Brahma burst Ravana's navel which contained the elixer, and returned to Rama's quiver. Ravana was destroyed and Rama was able to return home in victory.

85.1.1 Appearance

The arrow of Brahma that Rama shot had feathers of winds. The points were sun and flames. The shaft was Mount Meru, the hub of the universe and where Brahma lived.

85.2 Yaktovil

The yaktovil is a lengthy, complex ritual that prevents malevolent, supernatural beings from overpowering patients. The ritual brings the patients into the protective manifold of the Buddha. The ritual is performed by Theravada Buddhists.

85.2.1 Yakeduras

Yakeduras means "ones who know the art of offering" . They are specialists who take control over patient diagnosis and performance of the yaktovil.

85.2.2 Ritual

During the ritual, offering baskets for several yakas, or nature divinities, are placed on a bench. One of the baskets is devoted to Suniyam. His basket contains, among other things, a sacrificial chicken and an "arrow" of Brahma. The "arrow" in this ritual is a straight branch with one end in the shape of an arrowhead. During the ceremony, it is used to help command and control certain supernaturals. At one point in the ceremony, a person assisting will be "possessed" by the spirit of Suniyam. He will take the sacrificial chicken and stomp around the patient. The yakeduras will use the "arrow" to force his compliance in leaving the patient alone.

85.3 Sources

- "Rama" . Retrieved 2008-02-25.
- "Agastya" . Retrieved 2008-02-25.
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Sagitta

This article is about the constellation. For other uses, see Sagitta (disambiguation).

Sagitta is a constellation. Its name is Latin for "arrow", and it should not be confused with the larger constellation Sagittarius, the archer. Although Sagitta is an ancient constellation, it has no star brighter than 3rd magnitude and has the third-smallest area of all constellations (only Equuleus and Crux are smaller). It was included among the 48 constellations listed by the 2nd century astronomer Ptolemy, and it remains one of the 88 modern constellations defined by the International Astronomical Union. Located to the north of the equator, Sagitta can be seen from every location on Earth except within the Antarctic circle.

Sagitta lies within the Milky Way and is bordered by the following constellations (beginning at the north and then continuing clockwise): the little fox Vulpecula, the mythological hero Hercules, the eagle Aquila and the dolphin Delphinus.

86.1 Notable features

86.1.1 Stars

The following are some of Sagitta's brightest stars:

- α Sge: also known as *Sham*, this yellow bright giant star of spectral class G1 II (with 4.37m) lies at a distance of 610 light-years and together with β Sge (also 4.37m) forms either the feathers of the shaft or the two-pointed arrow once used in the Roman army.
- β Sge: A G-type giant.
- γ Sge: this cool giant (M0 III, 3.47m) represents with the stars δ Sge and ϵ Sge the shaft. It lies at a distance of merely 170 light-years.
- δ Sge: M2 II+A0 V (suspected visual double; probably single image, composite spectrum), 3.82m
- ε Sge: G8 III, 5.66m, multiple star (4 components; component B is optical)
- ζ Sge: Triple system, ~326 LY from Earth, primary an A-type.
- η Sge: this star of spectral class K2 III with 5.1m belongs to the Hyades moving group.

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86.1.2 Deep-sky objects

M71: this object is a very loose globular cluster mistaken for quite some time for a dense open cluster. It lies at a
distance of about 13,000 light-years from Earth and was first discovered by the French astronomer Philippe Loys
de Chéseaux in the year 1745 or 1746.

• Covering much of Sagitta is the Hercules–Corona Borealis Great Wall. It has the size of 10 billion light years, making it thelargest structure in the universe known.

86.2 History

The Greeks who may have*[1] originally identified this constellation called it *Oistos*.*[2] The Romans named it Sagitta. Johann Bayer chose to name the stars in Sagitta in a non-brightness order, in this case giving the brightest star a designation of γ. Another example of such a deviation from the usual brightness order is the constellation Sagittarius.

86.3 Mythology

Sagitta's shape is reminiscent of an arrow, and many cultures have interpreted it thus, among them the Persians, Hebrews, Greeks and Romans. The Arabs called it *as-Sahm*, a name that was transferred *Sham* and now refers to α Sge only.

86.3.1 Ancient Greece

In ancient Greece, Sagitta was regarded as the weapon that Hercules used to kill the eagle (Aquila) of Jove that perpetually gnawed Prometheus' liver.*[3] The Arrow is located beyond the north border of Aquila, the Eagle. Others believe the Arrow to be the one shot by Hercules towards the adjacent Stymphalian birds (6th labor) who had claws, beaks and wings of iron, and who lived on human flesh in the marshes of Arcadia - Aquila the Eagle and Cygnus the Swan, and the Vulture - and still lying between them, whence the title Herculea. Eratosthenes claimed it as the arrow with which Apollo exterminated the Cyclopes.*[3]

86.4 See also

Sagittarius

86.5 References

- [1] page 88 in Origins of the ancient constellations: II. The Mediterranean traditions, by J. H. Rogers 1998
- [2] Katasterismoi per theoi.com in theoi.com
- [3] Astronomica by Hyginus, Mary Grant translation at theoi.com
- Ian Ridpath and Wil Tirion (2007). Stars and Planets Guide, Collins, London. ISBN 978-0-00-725120-9. Princeton University Press, Princeton. ISBN 978-0-691-13556-4.

86.6. EXTERNAL LINKS 293

86.6 External links

• The Deep Photographic Guide to the Constellations: Sagitta

- Star Tales Sagitta
- Sagitta Constellation at Constellation Guide

Coordinates: 19*h 50*m 00*s, +18° 40′ 00″

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The constellation Sagitta as it can be seen by the naked eye.

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Sagitta can be seen above Aquila in this plate from Urania's Mirror (1825).

Talaria

Talaria (Latin: *talaria*, Ancient Greek: πτηνοπέδιλος; πτερόεντα πέδαλα) are winged sandals, a symbol of the Greek messenger god Hermes (Roman equivalent Mercury). They were said to be made by the god Hephaestus of imperishable gold and they flew the god as swift as any bird. The name is from the Latin *talaria*, neuter plural of *talaris*, "of the ankle".

87.1 Appearances

The talaria are mentioned in Homer, who describes them as ἀμβρόσια χρύσεια / ambrósia khrýseia, ("immortal/divine and of gold").*[2] However, he does not mention the wings. Those are first mentioned in the *Shield of Heracles*, which speaks of Ancient Greek: πτερόεντα πέδιλα / pteróenta pédila, literally "winged sandals." *[3] Later authors repeat this characteristic, for instance in the Orphic Hymns XXVIII (to Hermes).*[4]

In the story of Perseus, he wears them to help him slay Medusa.*[5] According to Aeschylus, Hermes gives them to Perseus directly,*[6] In a better-attested version, Perseus must retrieve them from the Graeae, along with the cap of invisibility and the kibisis (sack).*[7] However, Perseus sees poorly because Hermes does not have his own sandals, nor Hades his own helmet.*[8]

87.2 In popular culture

In Rick Riordan's fantasy-adventure novel *The Lightning Thief*, the Talaria is called Maia and are used by Grover Underwood.

87.3 See also

• EADS Talarion an unmanned air vehicle named after Talaria.

87.4 Notes

- [1] Gantz, 541.
- [2] Homer, Odyssey, V, 44.
- [3] Pseudo-Hesiod, Shield of Heracles, 220.
- [4] I, 583 and II, 730.

87.4. NOTES 297



A 19th-century engraving of talaria.

- [5] Gaius Julius Hyginus, Fables (LXIV) and Nonnus, Dionysiaca, (XIV, 270).
- [6] Aeschylus, The Phorkides, fr. 262 iv, v Radt.
- [7] Pherecydes of Leros, 3F11 Fragmente der griechischen Historiker, and the Bibliotheca (Pseudo-Apollodorus), II, 4, 2.

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One of the oldest known representations: *[1] Perseus, wearing the talaria and carrying the kibisis over his shoulder, turns his head to kill Medusa on this Orientalizing relief pithos, c. 660 BCE, Louvre museum.

[8] Gantz, 542.

87.5 References

• Timothy Gantz, *Mythes de la Grèce archaïque*, Belin, 2004, p. 541-543.

87.6 External links

• Media related to Talaria at Wikimedia Commons

Seven-league boots



Hop o' My Thumb stealing the Seven-league boots from the Ogre, by Gustave Doré

Seven-league boots is an element in European folklore. The boot allows the person wearing them to take strides of seven leagues per step, resulting in great speed. The boots are often presented by a magical character to the protagonist to aid in the completion of a significant task.

Mention of the legendary boots are found in:

- Germany Sweetheart Roland, Adelbert von Chamisso's *Peter Schlemiel*, Goethe's Faust (Mephistopheles uses them at the start of Part Two, Act Four*[1]), Wilhelm Hauff's "Der Kleine Muck"
- France Charles Perrault's Hop o' My Thumb
- Norway Peter Christen Asbjørnsen and Jørgen Moe Soria Moria Castle
- England Jack the Giant Killer, John Masefield's *The Midnight Folk*, C.S. Lewis's *The Pilgrim's Regress*, The Light Fantastic, The Bartimaeus Trilogy, Jenny Nimmo's *Midnight for Charlie Bone*, Diana Wynne Jones' *Howl's Moving Castle*
- United States Zane Grey's *The Last of the Plainsmen*, Ruth Chew's "What the Witch Left", Gail Carson Levine's "The Two Princesses of Bamarre" Diana Wynne Jones's "Howl's Moving Castle" Mark Twain's "The Innocents Abroad"

88.1 Etymology

From the context of English language, 'Seven-league boots' originally arose as a translation from the French 'bottes de sept lieues',*[2] popularised by Charles Perrault's fairy tales. A league (roughly 3 miles or 4.4 km) was considered to represent the distance walked in an hour by an average man. If a man were to walk 7 hours per day, he would then walk 7 leagues, or just under 30 km. In the 17th century, post-boys' boots were called 'seven-league boots'. While some suggest that the '7 leagues' references the distance between post houses (post-boys would only have their boots touch the ground at every coach inn, when changing the horses), this is inaccurate: the distance between coach inns was fixed at no more than 5 leagues.*[3]

88.2 Other variations

88.2.1 In fiction

- Russian folklore has a similar magic item called *canoεu-cκοροχοδы* (fast-walker boots), which allows the person wearing them to walk and run at an amazing pace.
- Boots of speed are a frequent item in role-playing games and roguelikes. In the Dungeons & Dragons role-playing game, boots of speed are a variation of the famous magical boots. They enable the person wearing them to run very fast. In most cases, as fast as a galloping horse, or bit slower if the person wearing them is slow to move around. The person wearing them must usually rest for long periods after use. They are sometimes referred to as 7 League Boots.
- One League Boots are used by Kay Harker in The Midnight Folk. He takes them from the cupboard of the witch, Mrs. Pouncer, where there are many other magical items.
- Seven League Boots appear in all three of the books of the Bartimaeus Trilogy, worn by the mercenary Verroq. In The Amulet of Samarkand, Bartimaeus remarks that the boots were created in Medieval Europe by imprisoning a djinni in each boot who could operate on a theoretical *eighth* plane. Because of this, normal rules of time and space do not apply to them.
- Seven League Boots are a library artifact used several times in The Grimm Legacy, authored by Polly Shulman.
- Ten-league boots is a common variant.
- Seven-league-boots are used in Terry Pratchett's Discovorld books by the wizards of Unseen University. It is noted that, as their mode of operation places the user's feet twenty-one miles apart, skipping the required preparations leads to spectacular but tragic incidents.

88.3. SEE ALSO 301

• The character Jack is reported to have attempted to use the boots to win the Boston Marathon in *Fables* (comic).

- **Nostro's Boots of Striding** are a legendary item described in Book 6 of the Dragon Warriors role-playing game, having a similar function to seven-league boots.
- Seven league boots is an item in the computer game Ancient Domains of Mystery (ADOM) that reduces the time to traverse wilderness and dungeon squares.
- 7 League Boots (or simply "boots", if the item isn't detailed) are a usable item in the game Ogre Battle: March of the Black Queen. If used, they transport a player's unit to any freed town in the current map.
- **Boots of Blinding Speed** are a pair of boots in the Elder Scrolls III: Morrowind which allow the person wearing them to run at extremely high speeds, but blind the user during use.
- **Ten Pace Boots** also found in **Morrowind**, increase the player's running speed and let the player fall from great heights without taking damage.
- Seven League Boots are used by Princess Addie in The Two Princesses of Bamarre by Gail Carson Levine.
- Seven League Boots are used by the protagionist Giannine Bellisario, in the fantasy novel, Heir Apparent (novel). They are used to travel to a dragon's lair that would have originally taken days, but was eventually undertaken in a few hours.
- Seven League Boots are used by Savant in the Wildstorm comic WildCATS.
- Seven League Boots were used in an episode of Fox's Peter Pan and the Pirates in which Captain Hook steals magical boots from a fairy that allow him to leap great distances and fly in order to make it easier for him to hunt down Peter Pan.
- Seven League Boots were used in the book Howl's Moving Castle by Sophie in order to travel a great distance to Lettie's house.

88.2.2 Non fictional

- Seven League Boots is a 1935 travelogue by American adventurer Richard Halliburton
- Jumping stilts, a device for jumping and running
- Rocket boots
- Song "Seven League Boots" by Rick and Michael Curtis.
- Song "Seven League Boots" by Zoë Keating (Album "Into The Tress", 2010)

88.3 See also

- League (unit)
- Fairy tale
- European folklore

88.4 References

- [1] Goethe (1959). Faust, Part Two. Middlesex: Penguin. p. 216. ISBN 0 14044093 3.
- [2] http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/seven-league+boots
- [3] Jobé, Joseph (1976). Au temps des cochers : histoire illustrée du voyage en voiture attelée du XVe au XXe siècle. Lausanne: Édita-Lazarus. p. 54. ISBN 2-88001-019-5.

88.5 External links

• The Seven Mile Boots media art piece

Shirt of Nessus



Lichas bringing the garment of Nessus to Hercules, woodcut by Hans Sebald Beham, circa 1542-1548.

The **Shirt of Nessus**, **Tunic of Nessus**, **Nessus-robe**, or **Nessus' shirt** in Greek mythology was the poisoned shirt that killed Heracles. It was once a popular reference in literature. In folkloristics, it is considered an instance of the "poison dress" motif.*[1]

In Greek mythology, it is the shirt (chiton) daubed with the tainted blood of the centaur Nessus that Deianeira, Hercules' wife, naïvely gave Hercules, burning him, and driving him to throw himself onto a funeral pyre.

Metaphorically, it represents "a source of misfortune from which there is no escape; a fatal present; anything that wounds the susceptibilities" *[2] or a "destructive or expiatory force or influence" *[3]

89.1 Historical references

89.1.1 Hitler plot

Major-General Henning von Tresckow, one of the primary conspirators in the July 20 plot to assassinate Adolf Hitler, famously referred to the 'Robe of Nessus' following the realization that the assassination plot had failed and that he and others involved in the conspiracy would lose their lives as a result: "None of us can complain about our own deaths. Everyone who joined our circle put on the 'Robe of Nessus'." *[4]

89.2 References in literature

89.2.1 Alexandre Dumas

In his work *The Count of Monte Cristo*, after Benedetto reveals in court that the crown prosecutor Monsieur de Villefort was his illegitimate father, he (de Villefort) forfeits his job and he removes his robes because it was a burden and torment to him, using the shirt of Nessus as a metaphor.

89.2.2 T.S. Eliot

In section IV of his poem "Little Gidding", the final poem of *Four Quartets*, Eliot alludes to the Nessus myth and the Herculean "shirt of flame" in his lines:

... Love is the unfamiliar Name Behind the hands that wove The intolerable shirt of flame Which human power cannot remove.

89.2.3 John Barth

The Shirt of Nessus (1952) is also the title of the master's thesis of noted American postmodern novelist John Barth. Written for the Writing Seminars program at Johns Hopkins University, which Barth himself later ran, The Shirt of Nessus is not a dissertation, but rather a short novel or novella. It can be considered Barth's first full-length fictional work, and it also is likely to remain his most elusive. Barth, not unlike a fair number of other authors, has revealed himself to be embarrassed by his early unpublished work--in his case, most work before The Floating Opera. The Shirt of Nessus is briefly referenced in both of Barth's nonfiction collections, The Friday Book and Further Fridays, but little is known of its actual content. The only known copies not held by the author were kept in the Johns Hopkins school library and the Writing Seminars Department thesis copies, but recent inquiries by devoted Barth fans have shown that the copy held by the Writing Seminars at Johns Hopkins disappeared in the mid-1960s, while the other seems to have mysteriously "walked out" of the school's special collections division of the library. It is the opinion of some notable JHU faculty members who occasionally talk to Barth that he may have been the mastermind behind these disappearances himself. While that remains speculation, when the special collections division notified Barth in 2002 (when the volume was first found to be missing), Barth responded that he "was not altogether unhappy the library no longer had a copy".

89.2.4 Robert Duncan

In the "Introduction" to *Bending the Bow*: "Pound sought coherence in The Cantos and comes in Canto 116 to lament 'and I cannot make it cohere.' But the 'SPLENDOUR, IT ALL COHERES' of the poet's Herakles in The Women of Trachis is a key or recognition of a double meaning that turns in the lock of the Nessus shirt."

In Audit/Poetry IV.3, issue featuring Robert Duncan, in his long polemic with Robin Blaser's translation of The Chimeres of Gerard de Nerval, which Duncan believes deliberately and fatally omit the mystical and gnostic overtones of the original, Duncan writes: "The mystical doctrine of neo-Pythagorean naturalism has become like a Nessus shirt to the translator, and in the translation we hear Heracles' tortured cry from Pound's version of the Women of Trachis from Sophokles: 'it all coheres.'"

89.2.5 Hyam Plutzik

In Hyam Plutzik's poem "Portrait", which appears in his collection Apples From Shinar, the poet writes of a Jewish-American character in the late 1950s who has successfully assimilated, and is able to "ignore the monster, the mountain-/A few thousand years of history." Except for one problem, "one ill-fitting garment…The shirt, the borrowed shirt, /The Greek shirt." The last line reveals the "Greek shirt" is "a shirt by Nessus."

89.2.6 Other appearances in fiction

- In Robertson Davies's novel *Fifth Business*, Dunstan buys an expensive silk shirt at a cost beyond his means. He purchases it out of envy for his rival, Boy Staunton, who is living a life of wealth while attending the same university. "It burned me like the shirt of Nessus, but I wore it to rags, to get my money out of it, garment of the guilty luxury that it was."
- In H. Rider Haggard's *Montezuma's Daughter*, when Otomie the princess is made to wear the garb of a low-class woman in order to escape imprisonment, the narrator states that "for her proud heart, that dress was the very shirt of Nessus."
- In James Branch Cabell's *Jurgen*, the title character dons the shirt of nessus and is transported by it on his travels, in the end of the story he is allowed to take it off, in contradiction to the usual conventions.
- Also in Mihai Eminescu's poem, "Ode (In ancient meter)", [1883, Romanian to English]

Or like Hercules by his garment poisoned;

By my own illusion consumed I'm wailing

On my own grim pyre in flames I'm melting...

- In Patrick O'Brian's novel *The Surgeon's Mate*, Stephen Maturin reflects on his friend Sir Joseph Blain's lament for his diminished sexual appetite. Blaine comments "You are a younger man than I am, Maturin, and it may be that you do not know from experience that the absence of torment may be a worse torment still: you may wish to throw a hair shirt aside, not realizing that it is the hair shirt alone that keeps you warm. 'A Nessus' Shirt might be more apt' said Stephen, quite unheard."
- In Mary Renault's novel *The Charioteer*, the matron of the ward of the military hospital where Laurie 'Spud' Odell is convalescing is introduced as follows:

Matron had just arrived, and done a round. She came poking into the ward, her petticoat showing slightly, defensively frigid; she had been promoted beyond her dreams and it had been a Nessus' shirt to her. Homesick for her little country nursing home, she peered down the line of beds, noting with dismay how many men were up and at large, rough men with rude, cruel laughter, who wrote things on walls, who talked about women, who got VD (but then one was able to transfer them elsewhere). She was wretched, but her career was booming.

- In Rick Riordan's *Percy Jackson* series of books a vague reference is made to the Shirt of Nessus as the brothers Travis and Connor Stoll give a t-shirt coated in Centaur blood to one of Artemis' Hunters. While in this telling the pain caused is not insufferable, the immortal hunter was laid up with a bad case of hives as a result of the brothers' prank.
- In Gene Wolfe's *Book of the New Sun* series, the city from which Severian, the main character, originates is called Nessus. The main character himself is referred to as "The New Sun", and ultimately his attempt to revive the Urth/Earth with a new sun causes a gravitational distortion that floods the whole of the Earth and destroys his home city.
- In Assia Djebar's *Fantasia: An Algerian Cavalcade* the author assumes her own voice and writes that acquiring and using the French language has been like donning the Shirt of Nessus.
- In Yasmina Khadra's *The Swallows of Kabul* a character despising the use of the burqa by Muslim extremists compares it to donning the Shirt of Nessus

89.2.7 References in non-fiction

- It is also the title of a 1956 non-fiction book dealing with anti-Nazi groups in Germany during World War II.
- The Polish dissident writer Jan Józef Lipski published a collection of essays called *Tunika Nessosa* ("The Shirt of Nessos"), dealing with, and critical of, Polish Catholic nationalism. Lipski called nationalism the shirt of Nessos, which destroys the cultural genius of a nation.
- In Thomas Merton's *The Seven Storey Mountain, an Autobiography of Faith*, he writes about the false humility of hell:

There is a certain kind of humility in hell which is one of the worst things in hell, and which is infinitely far from the humility of the saints, which is peace. The false humility of hell is an unending, burning shame at the inescapable stigma of our sins. The sins of the damned are felt by them as a vesture of intolerable insults from which they cannot escape. Nessus shirts that burn them up forever and which they can never throw off.

As referenced in Robert Massie's tome *Catherine The Great, A Portrait Of A Woman*, Catherine's former lover, Stanislau Poniatowski the King of Poland, writes to Catherine that the crown she procured for him would become a shirt of Nessus: "I shall be burned alive and my end frightful." Catherine's support for dissident Russian Orthodox believers, a Polish minority, against the majority Catholic rulers created an untenable situation in Polish politics that led to many uprisings against the Russian interference in Polish domestic squabbles.

89.3 References

- [1] Aarne-Thompson motif D1402.5 "Nessus shirt burns wearer up", as described in Mayor
- [2] E. Cobham Brewer, Dictionary of Phrase and Fable. 1898. online
- [3] Oxford English Dictionary
- [4] Mommsen, H., Alternatives to Hitler: German Resistance Under the Third Reich (London: I.B. Tauris, 2003), p. 7.

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89.4 Bibliography

• Baughman, Ernest W., *Type and Motif Index of the Folktales of England and North America*, Walter De Gruyter, June 1966. ISBN 90-279-0046-9.

• Mayor, Adrienne, "The Nessus Shirt in the New World: Smallpox Blankets in History and Legend," *Journal of American Folklore* **108**:427:54 (1995).

89.5 External links

• Hercules Poisoned by the Shirt of Nessus, a 15th-century illumination at the Getty Museum.

Helskór

In Norse paganism, helskór ("hel-shoes") were put on the dead so that they could go to Valhöll.

The only evidence for this custom is found in Gísla saga Súrssonar (14) when Vésteinn is buried:::

And when they had heaped up the howe, and were going to lay the body in it, Thorgrim the priest goes up to Gisli, and says, " Tis the custom, brother-in-law, to bind the hellshoe on men, so that they may walk on them to Valhalla, and I will now do that by Vestein."

—The story of Gisli the Outlaw, Dasent's translation

Viktor Rydberg pointed out other passages which may be of relevance here, believing them to be mythic traditions, barely corrupted by time and a change of religion.*[1] The Norse tradition preserved in Gisla saga Surssonar in regard to the importance for the dead to be provided with shoes reappears as a popular tradition in several places *[2] That Hel-shoes were to be had for those who were not supplied with them, but still deserved them, is probably a genuine mythological idea. Visio Godeschalci describes a journey to the underworld made by a Holstein peasant named Godeskalk, who belonged to the generation immediately preceding the one converted to Christianity. There he saw an immensely large and beautiful linden-tree hanging full of shoes, which were handed down to such dead travellers as had exercised mercy during their lives. When the dead had passed this tree they had to cross a heath two miles (3 km) wide, thickly grown with thorns, and then they came to a river full of irons with sharp edges. The unjust had to wade through this river, and suffered immensely. They were cut and mangled in every limb; but when they reached the other strand, their bodies were the same as they had been when they began crossing the river. (Similarly, in the Eddic poem Sólarljóð (42), a dying skald hears the roaring of subterranean streams mixed with blood). The just are able to cross the river by putting their feet on boards a foot wide and fourteen feet long, which floated on the water. This is the first day's journey. On the second day they come to a point where the road forked into three ways - one to heaven, one to hell, and one between these realms.

90.1 Notes

- [1] Teutonic Mythology, ch. 76
- [2] Müllenhoff, Deutsche Alterum., v. 1, 114; Jacob Grimm., Deutsche Mythologie III., p. 697; nachtr., 349; Weinhold, Altn. Leb., 494; Mannhardt in Zeitschr. f. deutsch. Myth., iv. 420; Simrock, Myth., v. 127.

90.2 References

• Dasent, George Webbe. The story of Gisli the Outlaw. Edinburgh: Edmonston and Douglas, 1866.

Tyet

The **tyet** is an ancient Egyptian symbol of the goddess Isis; its exact origin is unknown. In many respects the tyet resembles an ankh, except that its arms curve down. Its meaning is also reminiscent of the ankh, as it is often translated to mean "welfare" or "life". It seems to be called "the **Knot of Isis**" because it resembles a knot used to secure the garments that the Egyptian gods wore (also tet, buckle of Isis, girdle of Isis, and the blood of Isis). The meaning of "the Blood of Isis" is more obscure, but it was often used as a funerary amulet made of a red stone or of glass. It is also speculated that the Tyet represents the menstrual blood flow from Isis' womb and its magical properties.*[1]*[2]*[3]

It is mentioned in the 156th spell for the *Book of the Dead*:

"You possess your blood, Isis, you possess your power, Isis, you possess your magic, Isis. The amulet is a protection for this Great One, which will drive off anyone who would perform a criminal act against him."

In all these cases it seems to represent the ideas of resurrection and eternal life.

The symbol can be compared with the Minoan sacral knot, a symbol of a knot with a projecting loop found in Knossos of Crete.

91.1 See also

- Tanit, Phoenician goddess
- Knot (hieroglyph)

91.2 References

- [1] http://www.metmuseum.org/toah/works-of-art/00.4.39
- [2] http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/tyet
- [3] http://www.bmimages.com/preview.asp?image=00033225001

Megingjörð

In Norse mythology, the **megingjörð** (Old Norse "power-belt" *[1]) is a magic belt worn by the god Thor. According to the *Prose Edda*, the belt is one of Thor's three main possessions, along with the hammer Mjölnir and the iron glove Járngreipr. When worn, the belt is described as doubling Thor's already prodigious strength.

92.1 Notes

[1] Orchard (1997:110)

92.2 References

• Orchard, Andy (1997). Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2

92.2. REFERENCES 311



"Thor" (1901) by Johannes Gehrts.

Járngreipr

In Norse mythology, **Járngreipr** (Old Norse "iron grippers") or **Járnglófar** ("iron gauntlets" *[1]) are the iron gloves of the god Thor. According to the *Prose Edda*, along with the hammer Mjölnir and the belt Megingjörð, Járngreipr is one of Thor's three crucial possessions. According to chapter 20 of the book *Gylfaginning*, he requires the gloves to handle his powerful hammer. The reason for this may come from the forging of the hammer, when the dwarf working the bellows was bitten in his eye by a gadfly (commonly held to be Loki in disguise) which caused the handle of the hammer to be shortened.

93.1 Notes

[1] Simek (2007:178).

93.2 References

• Simek, Rudolf (2007) translated by Angela Hall. *Dictionary of Northern Mythology*. D.S. Brewer. ISBN 0-85991-513-1

93.2. REFERENCES 313



"Thor" (1901) by Johannes Gehrts.

Brísingamen

In Norse mythology, *Brísingamen* (or *Brísinga men*) is the torc or necklace of the goddess Freyja.*[1] The name is an Old Norse compound *brísinga-men* whose second element is *men* "(ornamental) neck-ring (of precious metal), torc".*[2] The etymology of the first element is uncertain. It has been derived from Old Norse *brísingr*, a poetic term for "fire" mentioned in the anonymous versified word-lists (*bulur*) appended to many manuscripts of the Prose Edda,*[3] making Brísingamen "gleaming torc", "sunny torc", or the like. However, *Brísingr* can also be an ethnonym, in which case *Brísinga men* is "torque of the Brísings"; the Old English parallel in *Beowulf* supports this derivation, though who the Brísings (Old Norse *Brísingar*) may have been remains unknown.*[4]

94.1 Attestations

94.1.1 Beowulf

Brísingamen is referred to in the Anglo-Saxon epic *Beowulf* as *Brosinga mene*. The brief mention in *Beowulf* is as follows (trans. by Howell Chickering, 1977):

...since Hama bore off to the shining city the Brosings' necklace, Gem-figured filigree. He gained the hatred Of Eormanric the Goth, chose eternal reward.

This seems to confuse two different stories as the *Beowulf* poet is clearly referring to the *Dietrich Cycle*. The *Piðrekssaga* tells that the warrior Heime (*Hama* in Old English) takes sides against Eormanric, king of the Goths, and has to flee his kingdom after robbing him; later in life, Hama enters a monastery and gives them all his stolen treasure. However, this saga makes no mention of the great necklace. Possibly the *Beowulf* poet was confused, or invented the addition of the necklace to give him an excuse to drag in a mention of Eormanric. In any case, the necklace given to Beowulf in the story is not the Brisingamen itself; it is only being compared to it.

94.1.2 Poetic Edda

In the poem *Prymskviða* of the *Poetic Edda*, Thrymr, the King of the jötuns, steals Thor's hammer, Mjölnir. Freyja lends Loki her falcon cloak to search for it; but upon returning, Loki tells Freyja that Thrymr has hidden the hammer and demanded to marry her in return. Freyja is so wrathful that all the Æsir's halls beneath her are shaken and the necklace Brísingamen breaks off from her neck. Later Thor borrows Brísingamen when he dresses up as Freyja to go to the wedding at Jötunheim.

94.1. ATTESTATIONS 315



Heimdall returns Brisingamen to Freyja, in an anachronistic painting centuries after the era of the myth's popularity

This myth is also recorded in an 18th-century Swedish folksong called *Hammar-Hemtningen* (the taking of the hammer), where Freyja is called Miss Frojenborg, "den väna solen" (the fair sun).*[5]

94.1.3 *Prose Edda*

Húsdrápa, a skaldic poem partially preserved in the *Prose Edda*, relates the story of the theft of Brísingamen by Loki. One day when Freyja wakes up and finds Brísingamen missing, she enlists the help of Heimdall to help her search for it. Eventually they find the thief, who turns out to be Loki who has transformed himself into a seal. Heimdall turns into a seal as well and fights Loki. After a lengthy battle at Singasteinn, Heimdall wins and returns Brísingamen to Freyja.

Snorri Sturluson quoted this old poem in *Skáldskaparmál*, saying that because of this legend Heimdall is called "Seeker of Freyja's Necklace" (*Skáldskaparmál*, section 8) and Loki is called "Thief of Brísingamen" (*Skáldskaparmál*, section 16). A similar story appears in the later *Sörla þáttr*, where Heimdall does not appear.

94.1.4 Sörla þáttr

Sörla þáttr is a short story in the later and extended version of the *Saga of Olaf Tryggvason**[6] in the manuscript of the *Flateyjarbók*, which was written and compiled by two Christian priests, Jon Thordson and Magnus Thorhalson, in the late 14th century.*[7] In the end of the story, the arrival of Christianity dissolves the old curse that traditionally was to endure until Ragnarök.

Frey ja was a human in Asia and was the favorite concubine of Odin, King of Asialand. When this woman wanted to buy a golden necklace (no name given) forged by four dwarves (named Dvalinn, Alfrik, Berling, and Grer), she offered them gold and silver but they replied that they would only sell it to her if she would lie a night by each of them. She came home afterward with the necklace and kept silent as if nothing happened. But a man called Loki somehow knew it, and came to tell Odin. King Odin commanded Loki to steal the necklace, so Loki turned into a fly to sneak into Freyja's bower and stole it. When Freyja found her necklace missing, she came to ask king Odin. In exchange for it, Odin ordered her to make two kings, each served by twenty kings, fight forever unless some christened men so brave would dare to enter the battle and slay them. She said yes, and got that necklace back. Under the spell, king Högni and king Heðinn battled for one hundred and forty-three years, as soon as they fell down they had to stand up again and fight on. But in the end, the Christian lord Olaf Tryggvason, who has a great fate and luck, arrived with his christened men, and whoever slain by a Christian would stay dead. Thus the pagan curse was finally dissolved by the arrival of Christianity. After that, the noble man, king Olaf, went back to his realm.*[8]

The battle of Högni and Heðinn is recorded in several medieval sources, including the skaldic poem *Ragnarsdrápa*, *Skáldskaparmál* (section 49), and *Gesta Danorum*: king Högni's daughter, Hildr, is kidnapped by king Heðinn. When Högni comes to fight Heðinn on an island, Hildr comes to offer her father a necklace on behalf of Heðinn for peace; but the two kings still battle, and Hildr resurrects the fallen to make them fight until Ragnarök.*[9] None of these earlier sources mentions Freyja or king Olaf Tryggvason, the historical figure who Christianized Norway and Iceland in the 10th Century.

94.2 Archaeological record

A pagan völva was buried c. 1000 with considerable splendour in Hagebyhöga in Östergötland. In addition to being buried with her wand, she had received great riches which included horses, a wagon and an Arabian bronze pitcher. There was also a silver pendant, which represents a woman with a broad necklace around her neck. This kind of necklace was only worn by the most prominent women during the Iron Age and some have interpreted it as Freyja's necklace Brísingamen. The pendant may represent Freyja herself.*[10]



The pendant, in the Swedish Museum of National Antiquities in Stockholm.

94.3 Modern influence

Alan Garner wrote a children's fantasy novel called *The Weirdstone of Brisingamen* about an enchanted teardrop bracelet.

Diana Paxson's novel *Brisingamen* features Freyja and her bracelet.

Black Phoenix Alchemy Lab has a perfumed oil scent named Brisingamen.

Freyja's necklace Brisingamen features prominently in Betsy Tobin's novel *Iceland*, where the necklace is seen to have significant protective powers.

J.R.R. Tolkien's "Silmarillion" includes a treasure called The Nauglamir which was made by the dwarves of Ered Luin for the Elvish King Finrod Felagund. However, the necklace was brought out a dragon's hoard by Turin Turambar and given to King Thingol of Doriath. This king asks a group of dwarves to set a Silmaril into the necklace for his wife

Melian to wear. The dwarves fall under the spell of the Silmaril and they claim the Nauglamir as their own – with the Silmaril attached. They kill Thingol and make off with the necklace. It is eventually recovered and is an heirloom of Thingol's descendants, eventually leading Earendil to Valinor and resulting in the return of the Valar into the affairs of Middle Earth. This is clearly intended to be the equivalent in his mythology to the Brisingamen.

In Christopher Paolini's *Inheritance Cycle*, the word "brisingr" means fire. This is probably a distillation of the word *brisinga*.

Brisingamen is represented as a card in the Yu-Gi-Oh Trading Card Game, "Nordic Relic Brisingamen".

Brisingamen was part of MMORPG Ragnarok Online lore, which is ranked as "God item". The game is heavily based from Norse mythology.

94.4 References

- [1] Bellows, Henry Adams (Trans.) The Poetic Edda, Princeton University Press, 1936. p. 158.
- [2] Faulkes, Anthony and Barnes, Michael (compilers) A New Introduction to Old Norse. Part III: Glossary and Index of Names. Fourth ed. Viking Society for Northern Research, 2007.
- [3] Vigfusson, Gudbrand and Powell, F. York (eds. & trans.) Corpus Poeticum Boreale: The Poetry of the Old Northern Tongue. Vol. II: Court Poetry. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1883. p. 435, l. 534.
- [4] Lindow, John. Handbook of Norse Mythology. ABC-CLIO, 2001, s.v. Brísinga men.
- [5] Hammar-Hemtningen (Swedish)
- [6] The Younger Edda. Rasmus B. Anderson transl. (1897) Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. (1901).
- [7] Rasmus B. Anderson, Introduction to the *The Flatey Book*. Norroena Society, London (1908). "The priest Jon Thordson wrote the story of Erik Vidforle and both the Olaf Sagas; but the priest Magnus Thorhalson wrote what follows and also what goes before, and revised the whole, thus dedicating the work: "May God Almighty and the Virgin Mary bless both the one that wrote and the one that dictated!"
- [8] This short story is also known as "The Saga of Högni and Hedinn". English translation can be found at Northvegr: Three Northern Love Stories and Other Tales.
- [9] Brodeur, Arthur Gilchrist. (Trans.) The Prose Edda of Snorri Sturluson (1916) Online at Google Books.
- [10] Harrison, D. & Svensson, K. (2007). Vikingaliv. Fälth & Hässler, Värnamo. ISBN 978-91-27-35725-9 p.58

Necklace of Harmonia

The **Necklace of Harmonia** was a fabled object in Greek mythology that, according to legend, brought great misfortune to all of its wearers or owners, who were primarily queens and princesses of the ill-fated House of Thebes.

95.1 Background

Hephaestus, blacksmith of the Olympian gods, discovered his wife, Aphrodite, goddess of love, having a sexual affair with Ares, the god of war. He became enraged and vowed to avenge himself for Aphrodite's infidelity by cursing any lineage of children resulting from the affair. Aphrodite bore a daughter, Harmonia, from Ares' seed. Harmonia grew up and was later betrothed to Cadmus of Thebes. Upon hearing of the royal engagement, Hephaestus presented Harmonia with an exquisite necklace and robe as a wedding gift. In some versions of the myth, only the necklace is given. In either case, the necklace was wrought by Hephaestus' own hand and was cursed to bring disaster to any who wore it.

95.2 Magical properties

The magical necklace, referred to simply as the Necklace of Harmonia, allowed any woman wearing it to remain eternally young and beautiful. It thus became a much-coveted object amongst women of the House of Thebes in Greek myths. Although no solid description of the Necklace exists, it is usually described in ancient Greek passages as being of beautifully wrought gold, in the shape of two serpents whose open mouths formed a clasp, and inlaid with various jewels.

95.3 Owners

Harmonia and Cadmus were both later transformed into serpents (dragons in some versions of the myth). The extent of their suffering as a result of Harmonia wearing the Necklace is debatable because Cadmus and Harmonia are usually described as ascending to the paradise of the Elysian Fields after their transformation. The Necklace then went to Harmonia's daughter Semele. She wore it the very day that Hera visited her and insinuated that her husband was not really Zeus. This led to Semele's destruction when she foolishly demanded that Zeus prove his identity by displaying himself in all his glory as the lord of heaven.

Several generations later, Queen Jocasta wore the legendary Necklace. It allowed her to retain her youth and beauty. Thus, after the death of her husband King Laius, she was able to marry her own son, Oedipus. When the truth about Oedipus was discovered, Jocasta committed suicide, and Oedipus tore out his own eyes. The descendants and relations of Oedipus all suffered various personal tragedies, as described in Sophocles' "Three Theban Plays": *Oedipus the King*, *Oedipus at Colonus*, and *Antigone*.

Polynices then inherited the Necklace. He gave it to Eriphyle, so that she might use it to persuade her husband, Amphiaraus, to undertake the expedition against Thebes. This led to the death of Eriphyle, Alcmaeon, Phegeus, and the latter's sons. Through Alcmaeon, the son of Eriphyle, the necklace then came into the hands of Phegeus' daughter Arsinoe (named Alphesiboea in some versions), then to the sons of Phegeus, Pronous and Agenor, and lastly to the sons of Alcmaeon, Amphoterus and Acarnan. Amphoterus and Acarnan dedicated the Necklace to the Temple of Athena at Delphi, to prevent further disaster amongst human wearers.

The tyrant Phayllus, one of the Phocian leaders in the Third Sacred War (356 BC-346 BC), then stole it from the Temple and gave it to his mistress. After she had worn it for a time, her son was seized with madness and set fire to the house, and she perished in the flames along with all her worldly treasures. No additional myths about the cursed Necklace of Harmonia exist after the story of Phayllus's mistress.

95.4 External links

- Michael Stewart Greek Mythology: From the Iliad to the Fall of the Last Tyrant
- Theoi Project Harmonia
- Greek Mythology Link (Carlos Parada) Robe & Necklace of Harmonia

Andvaranaut

In Norse mythology, Andvaranaut (Andvari's Gift), first owned by Andvari, is a magical ring that can make gold.

The mischievous god Loki tricked Andvari into giving him the Andvaranaut. In revenge, Andvari cursed the ring to bring misfortune and destruction to whoever possessed it. Loki quickly gave the cursed Andvaranaut to Hreidmar, King of the Dwarves, as reparation for having inadvertently killed Hreidmar's son, Ótr. Ótr's brother, Fafnir, then murdered Hreidmar and took the ring, turning into a dragon to guard it. Sigurd (Siegfried) later killed Fafnir and gave Andvaranaut to Brynhildr (Brünnehilde). Queen Grimhild of the Nibelungs then manipulated Sigurd and Brynhildr into marrying her children, bringing Andvaranaut's curse into her family.

96.1 In popular culture

In Thor (Marvel Comics) an adaption was done of the ring cycle, in which the ring appeared. Here it is much larger, meant to fit on all of Andvari's hand, though it fits on only one finger of the Giant Fafnir.

The story of Andvaranaut is one of the central themes of Richard Wagner's *Der Ring des Nibelungen (The Ring of the Nibelung)*, although Wagner's story does not use the name "Andvaranaut."

The ring Andvaranaut is credited as one of the inspirations for The One Ring in The Lord of The Rings.

Draupnir

For other uses, see Draupnir (disambiguation).

In Norse mythology, **Draupnir** (Old Norse "the dripper" *[1]) is a gold ring possessed by the god Odin with the ability to multiply itself: Every ninth night eight new rings 'drip' from Draupnir, each one of the same size and weight as the original.

Draupnir was forged by the dwarven brothers Brokkr and Eitri (or Sindri). Brokkr and Eitri made this ring as one of a set of three gifts which included Mjöllnir and Gullinbursti. They made these gifts in accordance with a wager Loki made saying that Brokk and Eitri could not make better gifts than the three made by the Sons of Ivaldi. In the end Mjöllnir, Thor's hammer, won the contest for Brokkr and Eitri. Loki used a loophole to get out of the wager for his head (the wager was for Loki's head only, but he argued that, to remove his head, they would have to injure his neck, which was not in the bargain) and Brokkr punished him by sealing his lips shut with wire.

The ring was placed by Odin on the funeral pyre of his son Baldr:

Odin laid upon the pyre the gold ring called Draupnir; this quality attended it: that every ninth night there fell from it eight gold rings of equal weight. (from the *Gylfaginning*).

The ring was subsequently retrieved by Hermóðr. It was offered as a gift by Freyr's servant Skírnir in the wooing of Gerðr, which is described in the poem *Skírnismál*.

97.1 Draupnir in popular culture

DRAUPNIR was revealed as the password to a website that Neal Caffrey and Mozzie used to view their stolen Nazi U-boat treasure in "Taking Account", the seventh episode of the third season of White Collar.

Draupnir is represented as a card in the Yu-Gi-Oh Trading Card Game. It has an effect that mimics the multiplication ability of the mythological version. If it is destroyed by another cards effect, you may add another "Nordic Relic" card to your hand. The art represents it as an arm brace, with another brace seemingly growing from it, once again mimicking the story.

97.2 Notes

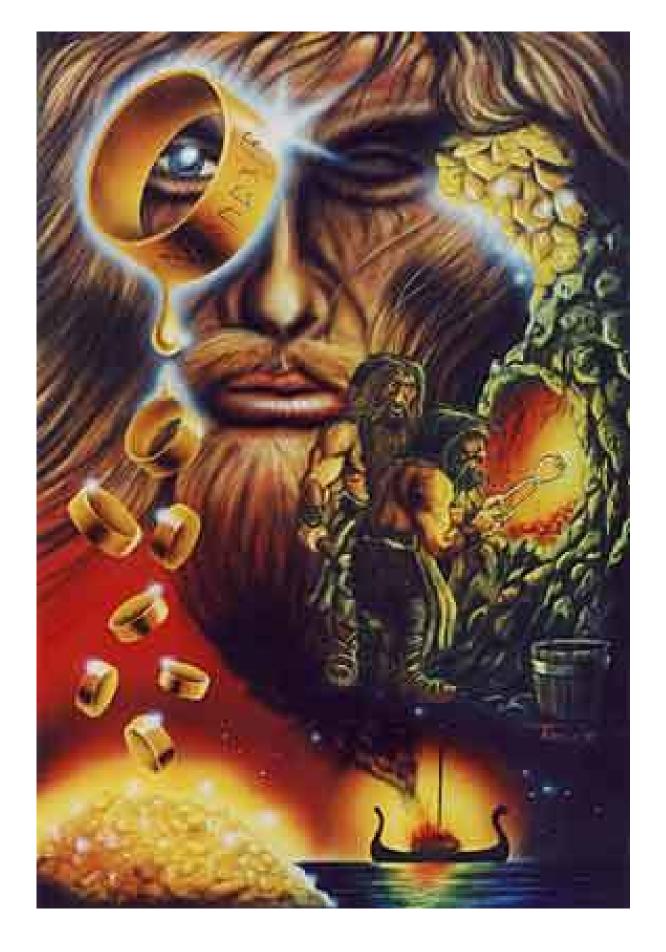
[1] Orchard (1997:34).

97.3. REFERENCES 323

97.3 References

• Orchard, Andy (1997). Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2

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97.3. REFERENCES 325



Ring of Gyges

The **Ring of Gyges** is a mythical magical artifact mentioned by the philosopher Plato in Book 2 of his *Republic* (2.359a–2.360d).*[1] It granted its owner the power to become invisible at will. Through the story of the ring, *Republic* considers whether an intelligent person would be moral if he did not have to fear being caught and punished.

98.1 The legends

Gyges of Lydia was a historical king, the founder of the Mermand dynasty of Lydian kings. Various ancient works—the most well-known being *The Histories* of Herodotus*[2]—gave different accounts of the circumstances of his rise to power.*[3] All, however, agree in asserting that he was originally a subordinate of King Candaules of Lydia, that he killed Candaules and seized the throne, and that he had either seduced Candaules' Queen before killing him, married her afterwards, or both.

In Glaucon's recounting of the myth (which is clearly not based on historical fact), an unnamed ancestor of Gyges*[4] was a shepherd in the service of the ruler of Lydia. After an earthquake, a cave was revealed in a mountainside where he was feeding his flock. Entering the cave, he discovered that it was in fact a tomb with a bronze horse containing a corpse, larger than that of a man, who wore a golden ring, which he pocketed. He discovered that the ring gave him the power to become invisible by adjusting it. He then arranged to be chosen as one of the messengers who reported to the king as to the status of the flocks. Arriving at the palace, he used his new power of invisibility to seduce the queen, and with her help he murdered the king, and became king of Lydia himself.

98.2 The role of the legend in Republic

In *Republic*, the tale of the ring of Gyges is described by the character of Glaucon who is the brother of Plato. Glaucon asks whether any man can be so virtuous that he could resist the temptation of being able to perform any act without being known or discovered. Glaucon suggests that morality is only a social construction, the source of which is the desire to maintain one's reputation for virtue and justice. Hence, if that sanction were removed, one's moral character would evaporate.

Glaucon posits:

Suppose now that there were two such magic rings, and the just put on one of them and the unjust the other; no man can be imagined to be of such an iron nature that he would stand fast in justice. No man would keep his hands off what was not his own when he could safely take what he liked out of the market, or go into houses and lie with any one at his pleasure, or kill or release from prison whom he would, and in all respects be like a god among men.

Then the actions of the just would be as the actions of the unjust; they would both come at last to the same point. And this we may truly affirm to be a great proof that a man is just, not willingly or because he thinks that justice is any good to him individually, but of necessity, for wherever any one thinks that he can safely be unjust, there he is unjust.

For all men believe in their hearts that injustice is far more profitable to the individual than justice, and he who argues as I have been supposing, will say that they are right. If you could imagine any one obtaining this power of becoming invisible, and never doing any wrong or touching what was another's, he would be thought by the lookers-on to be a most wretched idiot, although they would praise him to one another's faces, and keep up appearances with one another from a fear that they too might suffer injustice.

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-Plato's Republic, 360b-d (Jowett trans.)
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Though his answer to Glaucon's challenge is delayed, Socrates ultimately argues that justice does not derive from this social construct: the man who abused the power of the Ring of Gyges has in fact enslaved himself to his appetites, while the man who chose not to use it remains rationally in control of himself and is therefore happy. (Republic 10:612b)

98.3 Cultural influences

- H. G. Wells' *The Invisible Man* has as its basis a retelling of the tale of the Ring of Gyges.*[5]
- One story arc in the comic book series *The Spectre* features a giant Ring of Gyges.*[6]
- Alberich's Ring in the Richard Wagner's opera Der Ring des Nibelungen (The Ring of the Nibelung)
- The One Ring from J. R. R. Tolkien's *The Hobbit* and *The Lord of the Rings* grants invisibility to its wearer but corrupts its owner. Although there is speculation*[7] that Tolkien was influenced by Plato's story, a search on "Gyges" and "Plato" in his letters and biography provides no evidence for this. Unlike Plato's ring, Tolkien's exerts an active malevolent force that necessarily destroys the morality of the wearer.*[8]
- In his poem "Like a Sentence" John Ashbery has the lines "And it was said of Gyges that his ring / attracted those who saw him not," implying that death (the poem's overall subject) draws even those who ignore it.
- Cicero retells the story of Gyges in *De Officiis* to illustrate his thesis that a wise or good individual bases her decisions on a fear of moral degradation as opposed to punishment or negative consequences. He follows with a discussion of the role of thought experiments in philosophy. The hypothetical situation in question is complete immunity from punishment of the kind afforded to Gyges by his ring.*[9]
- Robertson Davies' novel Fifth Business discusses the story of the Ring of Gyges.

98.4 See also

• Online disinhibition effect

98.5 References

- [1] Laird, A. (2001). "Ringing the Changes on Gyges: Philosophy and the Formation of Fiction in Plato's Republic". *Journal of Hellenic Studies* **121**: 12–29. doi:10.2307/631825. JSTOR 631825.
- [2] Herodotus 1.7-13
- [3] Smith, Kirby Flower (1902). "The Tale of Gyges and the King of Lydia". *American Journal of Philology* **23** (4): 361–387. JSTOR 288700.

- [4] 359d: "τῷ [Γύγου] τοῦ Λυδοῦ προγόνῳ". In *Republic*, Book 10 (612b), Socrates refers to the ring as "the ring of Gyges" (τὸν Γύγου δακτύλιον). For this reason, the story is simply called "The Ring of Gyges".
- [5] Philip Holt (July 1992). "H.G. Wells and the Ring of Gyges". Science Fiction Studies. 19, Part 2 (57).
- [6] Gardner Fox (w), Murphy Anderson (a). "The Ghost of Ace Chance!" Showcase 64 (Sept.-Oct. 1966), DC Comics
- [7] "Plato: Ethics Ring of Gyges". Oregon State University. Retrieved April 16, 2013.
- [8] Tolkien, The Lord of the Ring, Book I, Chapter 2, "The Shadow of the Past" .
- [9] De Officiis 3.38-39

98.6 External links

- Glaukon's Challenge Glaukon's speech from book 2, translated by Cathal Woods (2010).
- Plato, Republic Book 2, translated by Benjamin Jowett (1892).
- The Ring of Gyges Analysis by Bernard Suzanne (1996).

Seal of Solomon

For other uses, see Solomon's Seal.

The **Seal of Solomon** (or **Ring of Solomon**; Arabic: *Sulaymāni Khātim* is the signet ring attributed to King Solomon in medieval jewish tradition, later also in the Islamic and in Western occultism. It was often depicted in either a pentagram or hexagram shape; the latter also known as Shield of David or Star of David in Jewish tradition.

This magic ring variously gave Solomon the power to command demons, genies (or jinni), or to speak with animals. Due to the proverbial wisdom of Solomon, his signet ring, or its supposed design, came to be seen as an amulet or talisman, or magical symbol or character in medieval and Renaissance-era magic, occultism and alchemy.

The legend of the Seal of Solomon was developed primarily by medieval Arabic writers, who related that the ring was engraved by the name of God and was given to the king directly from heaven. The ring was made from brass and iron, and the two parts were used to seal written commands to good and evil spirits, respectively. In one tale, a demon, either *Asmodeus*, or *Sakhr*, obtained possession of the ring and ruled in Solomon's stead for forty days. In a variant of the tale of the ring of Polycrates from Herodotus, the demon eventually threw the ring into the sea, where it was swallowed by a fish, caught by a fisherman, and served to Solomon.*[1]

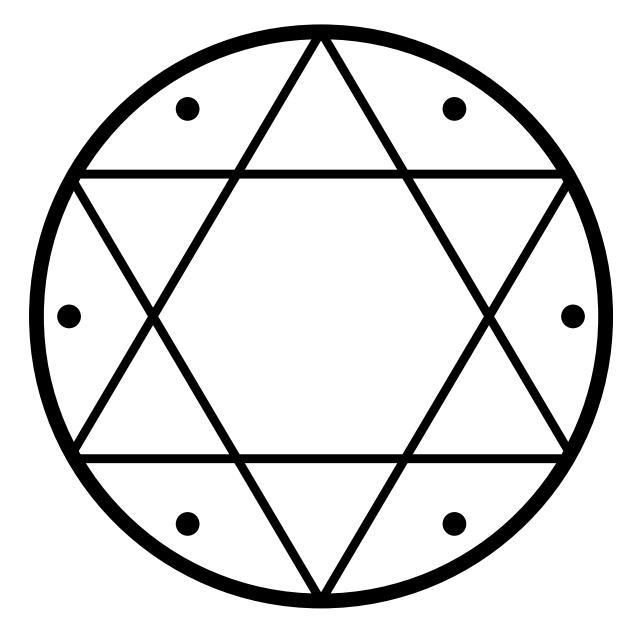
In Islamic eschatology, the Beast of the Earth is equipped with both the Staff of Moses and the Seal of Solomon and uses the latter to stamp the nose of the unbelievers.*[2]

The date of origin legends surrounding the Seal of Solomon is difficult to establish. It is known that a legend of a magic ring with which the possessor could command demons was already current in the 1st century (Josephus 8.2 telling of one Eleazar who used such a ring in the presence of Vespasian), but the assocociation of the name of Solomon with such a ring is medieval. The Tractate Gittin (fol. 68) of the Mishnah has a story involving Solomon, Asmodeus, and a ring with the divine name engraved.*[3]

The specification of the design of the seal as a hexagram seems to arise from a medieval Arab tradition. The name "Solomon's seal" was given to the hexagram engraved on the bottom of drinking-cups in Arab tradition. In the *Arabian Nights* (chapter 20), Sindbad presented Harun al-Rashid with such a cup, on which the "Table of Solomon" was engraved.*[4] Hexagrams feature prominently in Jewish esoteric literature from the early medieval period, and some authors have hypothesized that the tradition of Solomon's Seal may possibly predate Islam and date to early Rabbinical esoteric tradition, or to early alchemy in Hellenistic Judaism in 3rd-century Egypt, but there is no positive evidence for this, and most scholars assume that the symbol entered the Kabbalistic tradition of medieval Spain from Arabic literature.*[5] The representation as a pentagram, by contrast, seems to arise in the Western tradition of Renaissance magic (which was in turn strongly influenced by medieval Arab and Jewish occultism); White Kennett (1660–1728) makes reference to a "pentangle of Solomon" with the power of exorcising demons.*[6]

The hexagram or "Star of David", which became a symbol of Judaism in the modern period and was placed on the flag of Israel in 1948, has its origins in 14th-century depictions of the Seal of Solomon. In 1354, King of Bohemia Charles IV prescribed for the Jews of Prague a red flag with both David's shield and Solomon's seal, while the red flag with which the Jews met King Matthias of Hungary in the 15th century showed two pentagrams with two golden stars.*[7]

Peter de Abano's Heptameron (1496) makes reference to the "Pentacle of Solomon" (actually a hexagram drawn on the



One simple form of the Seal

floor in which the magician has to stand) to invoke various demons.*[8]

Lippmann Moses Büschenthal (d. 1818) wrote a tragedy with the title *Der Siegelring Salomonis* ("the signet-ring of Solomon"). An "Order of the Seal of Solomon" was established in 1874 in Ethiopia, where the ruling house claimed descent from Solomon.

99.1 See also

- Goetia
- Key of Solomon
- The Lesser Key of Solomon

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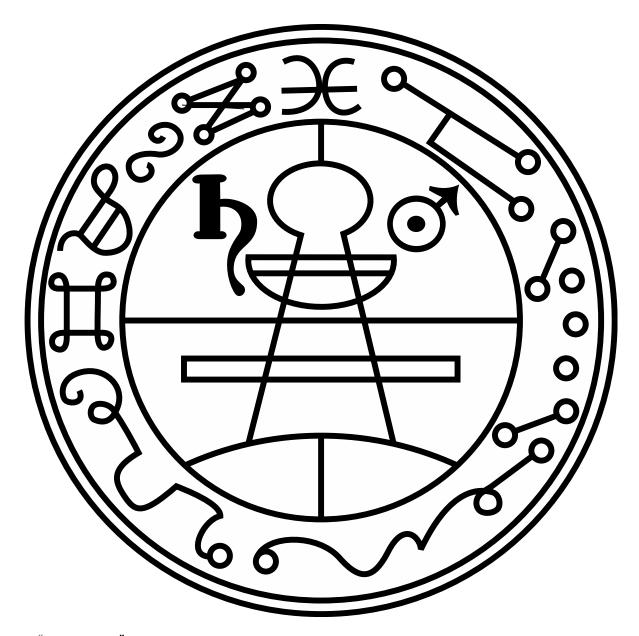


A hexagram on the obverse of Moroccan 4 falus coin, dated AH 1290 (AD 1873/4). The current flag of Morocco, introduced in 1915 (r. Yusef) displays a green pentagram in reference to Solomon.

- · Solomon's knot
- Solomon's Seal (album)
- Testament of Solomon
- Seal of Muhammad

99.2 References

- [1] "Solomon", Jewish Encyclopedia: "Solomon is represented as having authority over spirits, animals, wind, and water, all of which obeyed his orders by virtue of a magic ring set with the four jewels given him by the angels that had power over these four realms. [...] It was Solomon's custom to take off the ring when he was about to wash, and to give it to one of his wives, Amina, to hold. On one occasion, when the ring was in Amina's keeping, the rebellious spirit Sakhr took on Solomon's form and obtained the ring. He then seated himself on the throne and ruled for forty days, during which time the real king wandered about the country, poor and forlorn. On the fortieth day Sakhr dropped the ring into the sea; there it was swallowed by a fish, which was caught by a poor fisherman and given to Solomon for his supper. Solomon cut open the fish, found the ring, and returned to power. His forty days' exile had been sent in punishment for the idolatry practised in his house for forty days, although unknown to him, by one of his wives" Baidawi, ii. 187; Tabri, "Annales," ed. De Goeje, i. 592 et seq.)."
- [2] Sean Anthony, The Caliph and the Heretic: Ibn Saba' and the Origins of Shi'ism, 2011, p. 220.
- [3] The story involves Solomon giving a ring and a chain to one Benaiahu son of Jehoiada to catch the demon Ashmedai, using the demon's help to build the temple; Ashmedai later tricks Solomon into giving him the ring and swallows it. "Solomon thereupon sent thither Benaiahu son of Jehoiada, giving him a chain on which was graven the [Divine] Name and a ring on which was graven the Name and fleeces of wool and bottles of wine. Benaiahu went and dug a pit lower down the hill and let the water flow into it13 and stopped [the hollow] With the fleeces of wool, and he then dug a pit higher up and poured the wine into it14 and then filled up the pits. He then went and sat on a tree. When Ashmedai came he examined the seal, then opened the pit and found it full of wine. He said, it is written, Wine is a mocker, strong drink a brawler, and whosoever erreth thereby is not wise,15 and it is also written, Whoredom and wine and new wine take away the understanding.16 I will not drink it. Growing thirsty, however, he could not resist, and he drank till he became drunk, and fell asleep. Benaiahu then came down and threw the chain over him and fastened it. When he awoke he began to struggle, whereupon he [Benaiahu] said, The Name of thy Master is upon thee, the Name of thy Master is upon thee. [...] Solomon kept him [Ashmedai] with him until he had built the



The "Seal of Solomon" in the 17th-century grimoire The Lesser Key of Solomon

Temple. One day when he was alone with him, he said, it is written, He hath as it were to afoth and re'em ["the strength of a wild ox"], and we explain that to afoth means the ministering angels and re'em means the demons. What is your superiority over us? He said to him, Take the chain off me and give me your ring, and I will show you. So he took the chain off him and gave him the ring. He then swallowed him, [viz. "it", the ring] and placing one wing on the earth and one on the sky he hurled him four hundred parasangs. In reference to that incident Solomon said, What profit is there to a man in all his labour wherein he laboureth under the sun." trans. M. Simon.

- [4] Lane, "Arabian Nights" (1859; 1883), note 93 to chapter 20.
- [5] Leonora Leet, "The Hexagram and Hebraic Sacred Science" in: The Secret Doctrine of the Kabbalah, 1999, 212-217.
- [6] "Solomon, Seal of", Jewish Encyclopedia
- [7] Schwandtner, Scriptores Rerum Hungaricarum, ii. 148. Facsimile in M. Friedmann, Seder Eliyahu Rabbah ve-Seder Eliyahu Ztta, Vienna, 1901

99.3. EXTERNAL LINKS 333

[8] Per Pentaculum Salomonis advocavi, dent mihi responsum verum; Heptameron, ed. Agrippa von Nettesheim, Henrici Cornelii Agrippae liber qvartvs De occulta philosophia, seu de cerimonijs magicis, 1565. ed: Heinrich Cornelius, Karl Anton Nowotny. De occulta philosophia. Graz: Akademische Druck u. Verlagsanstalt, 1967, digital edition by Joseph H. Peterson, 1998, 2008.

99.3 External links

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- Various representations from the Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

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Magic carpet

For other uses, see Magic carpet (disambiguation).

A **magic carpet**, also called a **flying carpet**, is a legendary carpet that can be used to transport humans who are on it instantaneously or quickly to their destination.

1.1 In literature

One of the stories in the *One Thousand and One Nights* relates how Prince Husain, the eldest son of Sultan of the Indies, travels to Bisnagar (Vijayanagara) in India and buys a magic carpet*[1] This carpet is described as follows: "Whoever sitteth on this carpet and willeth in thought to be taken up and set down upon other site will, in the twinkling of an eye, be borne thither, be that place nearhand or distant many a day's journey and difficult to reach." *[2] The literary traditions of several other cultures also feature magical carpets, in most cases literally flying rather than instantly transporting their passengers from place to place.

Solomon's carpet *[3] was reportedly made of green silk with a golden weft, sixty miles long and sixty miles wide: "when Solomon sat upon the carpet he was caught up by the wind, and sailed through the air so quickly that he breakfasted at Damascus and supped in Media." *[4] The wind followed Solomon's commands, and ensured the carpet would go to the proper destination; when Solomon was proud, for his greatness and many accomplishments, the carpet gave a shake and 40,000 fell to their deaths.*[5] The carpet was shielded from the sun by a canopy of birds. In Shaikh Muhammad ibn Yahya al-Tadifi al-Hanbali's book of wonders, *Qala'id-al-Jawahir* ("Necklaces of Gems"), Shaikh Abdul-Qadir Gilani walks on the water of the River Tigris, then an enormous prayer rug (*sajjada*) appears in the sky above, "as if it were the flying carpet of Solomon [*bisat Sulaiman*]".*[6]

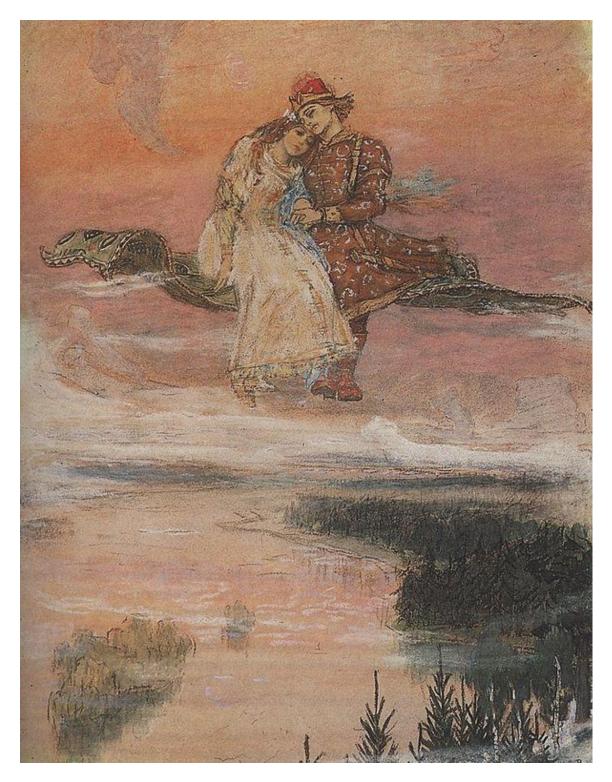
In Russian folk tales, Baba Yaga can supply Ivan the Fool with a flying carpet or some other magical gifts (e.g. a ball that rolls in front of the hero showing him the way, or a towel that can turn into a bridge). Such gifts help the hero to find his way "beyond thrice-nine lands, in the thrice-ten kingdom". Russian painter Viktor Vasnetsov illustrated the tales featuring a flying carpet on two occasions (*illustrations above and to the left*).

In Mark Twain's "Captain Stormfield's Visit to Heaven", magic wishing-carpets are used to instantaneously travel throughout Heaven.

1.2 In popular culture

Magic carpets have also been featured in modern literature, movies, and video games, and not always in a classic context.

- A magic carpet is featured in the film *The Thief of Bagdad* (1924) and its remake *The Thief of Bagdad* (1940).
- Poul Anderson's *Operation Chaos* features an alternate America in which flying carpets are a major form of transportation, along with brooms.



Another of Vasnetsov's renderings of the same subject

- Tam Sventon uses a flying carpet as his mode of transportation in the first three books of the series.
- A flying carpet is featured on a 1972 Malaysian black and white comedy film, Laksamana Do Re Mi directed by P. Ramlee.
- Peter Molyneux produced a god game in 1994 called *Magic Carpet*, originally made for MS-DOS and then ported to the Sega Saturn and Sony PlayStation, where you play a wizard on a magic carpet that collects mana to start cities and defeat enemies. It was followed by a sequel called *Magic Carpet 2* in 1995.

- A flying carpet is also a character (complete with personality) in the 1992 Disney film *Aladdin*.
- In the 1998 video game, *The Legend of Zelda: Ocarina of Time*, a merchant can be seen riding a magic carpet in the Haunted Wasteland.
- Flying carpets are made by and used by tailors in the game World of Warcraft
- In MÄR, Flying Carpet is a Dimension ÄRM that is owned by Edward the Dog. It transforms into a flying carpet that can be used as a mode of transportation.
- In the online MMORPG *RuneScape*, magic carpets (made from camel hair) used to be a popular and common method of transportation around the Kharidian Desert, but lost favour after the Emir of Al Kharid, the desert town, fell to his death after mistaking an ordinary carpet for his magic one.
- In the comic series and its animation adaptation *Magi: The Labyrinth of Magic*, *Aladdin*, the series' protagonist, usually uses his turban as a magic carpet for transportation.
- In Once Upon a Time in Wonderland, Jafar uses a magic carpet as his mode of transportation.

1.3 See also

- Asterix and the Magic Carpet illustrated comic story book on the adventures of Asterix, Obelix and Cacofonix in India
- Sherlock Holmes: The Mystery of the Persian Carpet (Frogwares) (PC)
- *King Solomon's Carpet* novel
- Old Khottabych, Soviet book and later 1956 film with the depiction of Flying Carpet
- Steppenwolf song "Magic Carpet Ride"

1.4 Notes

- [1] Brewers Dictionary of Phrase and Fable, p. 305 1894.
- [2] Burton, Richard The Thousand Nights and a Night" Vol. 13, 1885
- [3] Retold for children by Sulamith Ish-Kishor, The carpet of Solomon: A Hebrew legend 1966.
- [4] The Jewish Encyclopedia, s.v. Solomon: Solomon's carpet"
- [5] The Jewish Encyclopedia, ibid.
- [6] Qala'id-al-Jawahir book 6

1.5 External links

• The secret history of the Flying Carpet

Kay Kāvus

Kay Kāvus (Persian: كيكاوس; Avestan: Kauui Usan); sometimes Kai-Káús or Kai-Kaus,*[1]*[2] is a mythological shah of Iran and a character in the Shāhnāmeh. He is the son of Kay Qobād and the father of prince Seyāvash. Kāvus rules Iran for one hundred and fifty years during which he is frequently though increasingly grudgingly aided by the famous hero Rostam. He is succeeded by his grandson Kai Khosrow.

2.1 The flying throne

The Flying Throne of Kay Kāvus was a legendary eagle-propelled craft built by Kay Kāvus, used for flying the king all the way to China.*[3]*[4]

According to the Shāhnāmeh, Kāvus had a flying craft made consisting of a throne to the corners of which were attached four long poles pointing upward. It was made of wood and gold and he attached specially trained eagles. Pieces of meat were attached at the top of each pole and the ravenous eagles were chained to the feet. As the eagles tried to reach the meat they caused the throne to fly. The craft flew the king all the way to China, where the eagles grew tired and the craft came down. Rostam eventually had to rescue the king who, miraculously, survived the crash.

2.2 See also

Perses (son of Andromeda and Perseus)

2.3 References

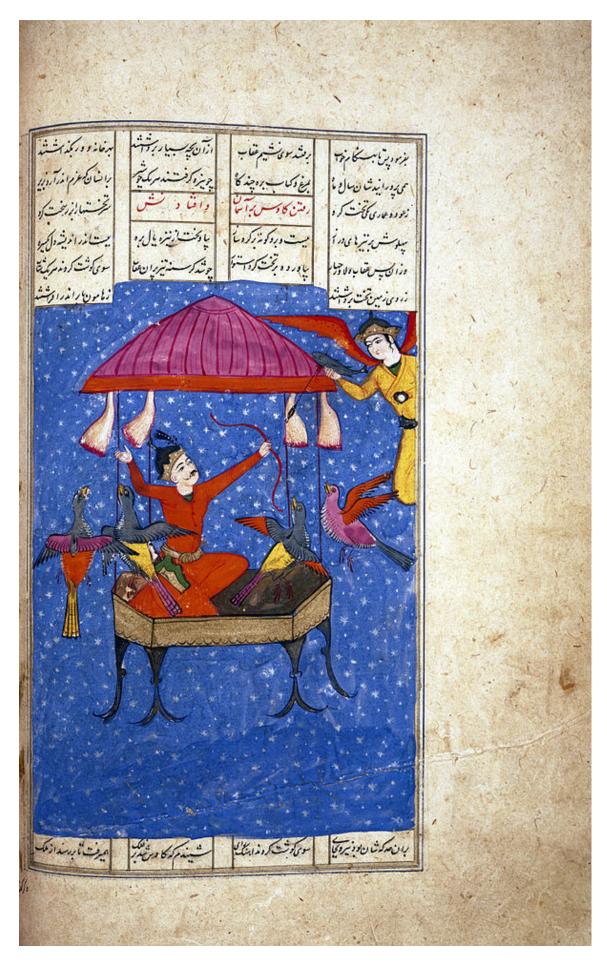
- [1] Firdawsī, *The Sháh námeh of the Persian poet Firdausí*. Oriental Translation Fund. Volume 21 of Publications, Oriental Translation Fund. Translated by James Atkinson. Printed for the Oriental Translation Fund of Great Britain and Ireland; sold by J. Murray, 1832, 532.
- [2] "The Origins Of Ideas of Space Flight" . Informatics.org. Retrieved May 2, 2012.
- [3] http://www.globalthink.net/global/shahnameh.html[]
- [4] Book Review: Into the Air, Social Studies for Kids

2.4 External links

• Unmuseum on the Flying Throne of Kay Kāvus

CHAPTER 2. KAY KĀVUS

6



Kay Kāvus on his flying throne. Illustration from an 8th-century Persian manuscript.

Argo

This article is about the ship from the Greek myth. For other uses, see Argo (disambiguation). In Greek mythology, Argo (/'argoz/; in Greek: 'Apy\(\delta\), meaning 'swift') was the ship on which Jason and the



The Argo (ca. 1500–1530), painting by Lorenzo Costa

Argonauts sailed from Iolcos to retrieve the Golden Fleece. She was named after her builder, Argus.

8 CHAPTER 3. ARGO



Coin of Iolcos, 4th century BC, depicting Argo. Obverse: Head of Artemis Iolkia. Reverse: Prow of Argo, IΩΛΚΙΩΝ (of Iolcians).

3.1 Legend

Argo was constructed by the shipwright Argus, and its crew were specially protected by the goddess Hera. The best source for the myth is the *Argonautica* by Apollonius Rhodius. According to a variety of sources of the legend, *Argo* was said to have been planned or constructed with the help of Athena. According to other legends she contained in her prow a magical piece of timber from the sacred forest of Dodona, which could speak and render prophecies. After the successful journey, *Argo* was consecrated to Poseidon in the Isthmus of Corinth. She was then translated into the sky and turned into the constellation of Argo Navis.*[1]

Several authors of antiquity (Apollonius Rhodius, Pliny,*[2] Philostephanus) discussed the hypothetical shape of the ship. Generally she was imagined like a Greek warship, a galley, and authors hypothesized that she was the first ship of this type that had gone out on a high-sea voyage.*[1]

3.2 Replica

Tim Severin commissioned the recreation of a Bronze Age galley, and in 1984 retraced the voyage of Jason.

A replica of a Greek penteconter was completed in 2008, which was named *Argo*. This vessel, with a 50-oar crew made up from all 27 European Union member countries, sailed from Jason's hometown of Volos to Venice, stopping at 23 cities *en route*.*[3]

In the fictitious book on Greek mythology, The Mark of Athena by Rick Riordan, the Argo II is built for the seven demigods to sail to Greece.

3.3 References

- [1] This article incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chambers, Ephraim, ed. (1728). "*article name needed". *Cyclopædia, or an Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences* (first ed.). James and John Knapton, *et al.*
- [2] Hist. Nat. 1.c.56
- [3] "Ancient Greek ship 'Argo' sets sail once again". Monsters and Critics. July 4, 2008.

3.4 External links

• Voyage of the Argo – slideshow by *The First Post*

Hringhorni



Thor Kicks Litr onto Baldr's Burning Ship, illustration by Emil Doepler (ca. 1905).

In Norse mythology, **Hringhorni** (Old Norse "ship with a circle on the stem" *[1]) is the name of the ship of the god Baldr, described as the "greatest of all ships". According to *Gylfaginning*, following the murder of Baldr by Loki, the other gods brought his body down to the sea and laid him to rest on the ship. They would have launched it out into the water and kindled a funeral pyre for Baldr but were unable to move the great vessel without the help of the giantess Hyrrokkin, who was sent for out of Jötunheim. She then flung the ship so violently down the rollers at the first push that flames appeared and the earth trembled, much to the annoyance of Thor.

Along with Baldr, his wife Nanna was also borne to the funeral pyre after she had died of grief. As Thor was consecrating the fire with his hammer Mjolnir, a dwarf named Litr began cavorting at his feet. Thor then kicked him into the flames and the dwarf was burned up as well. The significance of this seemingly incidental event is speculative but may perhaps find a parallel in religious ritual. Among other artifacts and creatures sacrificed on the pyre of Hringhorni were Odin's gold ring Draupnir and the horse of Baldr with all its trappings.

4.1 Notes

10

[1] Simek (2007:159).

4.2 References

• Simek, Rudolf (2007) translated by Angela Hall. *Dictionary of Northern Mythology*. D.S. Brewer. ISBN 0-85991-513-1

Naglfar

For the Swedish black metal band, see Naglfar (band).

In Norse mythology, **Naglfar** or **Naglfari** (Old Norse "nail ship") is a boat made entirely from the fingernails and toenails of the dead. During the events of Ragnarök, Naglfar is foretold to sail to Vígríðr, ferrying hordes that will there battle with the gods. Naglfar is attested in the *Poetic Edda*, compiled in the 13th century from earlier traditional sources, and the *Prose Edda*, written in the 13th century by Snorri Sturluson. The boat itself has been connected by scholars with a larger pattern of ritual hair and nail disposal among Indo-Europeans, stemming from Proto-Indo-European custom, and it may be depicted on the Tullstorp Runestone in Scania, Sweden.

5.1 Etymology

Some dispute has waged over the etymology of *Naglfar*. In the late 19th century, Adolf Noreen proposed that *nagl*-here does not have its usual meaning of "nail", but, instead, is a variant of Old Norse *nár* (meaning "corpse") and ultimately derives from Proto-Indo-European **nok-w-i*. Noreen claimed that the notion of Naglfar as a "nail-ship" is due to a folk etymology; that elaboration on the folk etymology produced the concept of a "nail-ship". *[1]

However, Sigmund Feist (1909) rejects the theory on etymological grounds, as does Albert Morley Sturtevant (1951) on the grounds of major difficulties, and their points have led Bruce Lincoln (1977) to comment that "there is no reason whatever to contend that *nagl*- does not have its usual meaning of "nail" and that Naglfar is anything other than the nail-ship, just as Snorri describes it." In addition, Lincoln finds the ship to be a part of a larger pattern of religious disposal and sacrifice of hair and nails among the Indo-Europeans (see below).*[1]

5.2 Attestations

Naglfar is attested in both the *Poetic Edda* and the *Prose Edda*. In the *Poetic Edda*, Naglfar is solely mentioned in two stanzas found in the poem *Völuspá*. In the poem, a deceased völva foretells that the ship will arrive with rising waters, carrying Hrym and Loki and with them a horde of others:

In the *Prose Edda*, Naglfar is mentioned four times. The ship is first mentioned in chapter 43 of *Gylfaginning*, where the enthroned figure of High notes that while Skíðblaðnir is best the ship—constructed with the finest skill—"the biggest ship is Naglfari, it belongs to Muspell".*[4]

In chapter 51, High foretells the events of Ragnarök. Regarding Naglfar, High says that after the stars disappear from the sky, the landscape will shake so severely that mountains fall apart, trees uproot, and all binds will snap, causing the wolf Fenrir to break free. After, the Midgardr Serpent Jörmungandr will fly into a rage and swim to the shore, causing the ocean to swell unto land. Naglfar, too, will be break free from its moorings. High describes the composition of Naglfar as that of the untrimmed nails of the dead, and warns about burying the dead with untrimmed nails, stating that "the ship is made of dead people's nails, and it is worth taking care lest anyone die with untrimmed nails, since such a person contributes much material to the ship Naglfar which gods and men wish would take a long time to

12 CHAPTER 5. NAGLFAR



The Tullstorp Runestone in Scania, Sweden

finish".*[5] High adds that the ship will be captained by the jötunn Hrym, and that Naglfar will be carried along with the surging waters of the flood.*[5] Further in chapter 51, High quotes the $V\"{o}lusp\acute{a}$ stanzas above that references the ship.*[6]

Naglfar receives a final mention in the *Prose Edda* in *Skáldskaparmál*, where it is included among a list of ships.*[7]

5.3 Archaeological record

If the images on the Tullstorp Runestone are correctly identified as being from Ragnarök, then Naglfar is shown below the monstrous wolf Fenrir.*[8] It has been pointed out that the ship image has beakheads both fore and aft unlike any known Viking ship, and is thus likely to be a symbolic ship.*[9]

5.4 Interpretations and theories

In his study of treatment of hair and nails among the Indo-Europeans, Bruce Lincoln compares Snorri's *Prose Edda* comments about nail disposal to an Avestan text, where Ahura Mazdā warns that daevas and xrafstras will spring from hair and nails that lay without correct burial, noting their conceptual similarities. Lincoln comments that "the specific image of Naglfar, the "Nail-ship," is undoubtedly specific to the Germanic world, although it does date to an ancient date within that area. But the basic idea on which it is based—that the improper disposal of hair and nails is an act which threatens the well-being of the cosmos-does ascend to the Indo-European period, as can be seen from comparisons [with Iranian myth]." *[1]

5.5 See also

• Naglfari, depending on manuscript, a figure with a similar or identical name

5.6 Notes

- [1] Lincoln (1977:360-361).
- [2] Thorpe (1906:7).
- [3] Bellows (1923:21-23).
- [4] Faulkes (1995:36-37).
- [5] Faulkes (1995:53).
- [6] Faulkes (1995:55).
- [7] Faulkes (1995:162).
- [8] Merrony (2004:136); Crumlin-Pedersen & Thye (1995:170).
- [9] McKinnell (2005:114).

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Sessrúmnir

In Norse mythology, **Sessrúmnir** (Old Norse "seat-room" *[1] or "seat-roomer" *[2]) is both the goddess Freyja's hall located in Fólkvangr, a field where Freyja receives half of those who die in battle, and also the name of a ship. Both the hall and the ship are attested in the *Prose Edda*, written in the 13th century by Snorri Sturluson. Scholarly theories have been proposed regarding a potential relation between the hall and the ship.

6.1 Attestations

Sessrúmnir is specifically referred to as a hall in chapter 24 of the *Prose Edda* book *Gylfaginning*. After describing Fólkvangr, High tells Gangleri (described as king Gylfi in disguise) that Freyja has the hall Sessrúmnir, and that "it is large and beautiful".*[3]

Sessrúmnir is secondly referred to in chapter 20 of the *Prose Edda* book *Skáldskaparmál*. In the chapter, means of referring to Freyja are given, including a reference to Sessrúmnir: "possessor of the fallen slain and of Sessrúmnir [...]".*[4] Sessrúmnir is referenced a third and final time within a list of ship names in chapter 75.*[5]

6.2 Theories

Rudolf Simek theorizes that one of the two notions of Sessrúmnir (as a ship or as a hall) may come from a misunderstanding, as the meaning of the name can be understood in both cases as "space with many or roomy seats."

*[6]

6.3 Notes

- [1] Orchard (1997:138).
- [2] Simek (2007:280).
- [3] Faulkes (1995:24).
- [4] Faulkes (1995:86).
- [5] Faulkes (1995:162).
- [6] Simek (1995:280).

6.4 References

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Skíðblaðnir

Skíðblaðnir (Old Norse 'assembled from thin pieces of wood'*[1]), sometimes anglicized as **Skidbladnir** or **Skithblathnir**, is the best of ships in Norse mythology. It is attested in the *Poetic Edda*, compiled in the 13th century from earlier traditional sources, and in the *Prose Edda* and *Heimskringla*, both written in the 13th century by Snorri Sturluson. All sources note that the ship is the finest of ships, and the *Poetic Edda* and *Prose Edda* attest that it is owned by the god Freyr, while the euhemerized account in *Heimskringla* attributes it to the magic of Odin. Both *Heimskringla* and the *Prose Edda* attribute to it the ability to be folded up—as cloth may be—into one's pocket when not needed.

7.1 Attestations

References to the ship occur in the *Poetic Edda*, the *Prose Edda*, and in *Heimskringla*. The ship is mentioned twice in the *Poetic Edda* and both incidents therein occur in the poem *Grímnismál*. In *Grímnismál*, Odin (disguised as *Grímnir*), tortured, starved, and thirsty, imparts in the young Agnar cosmological knowledge, including information about the origin of the ship Skíðblaðnir:

Skíðblaðnir is mentioned several times in the *Prose Edda*, where it appears in the books *Gylfaginning* and *Skáldskaparmál*. The first mention of Skíðblaðnir in the *Poetic Edda* occurs in chapter 43, where the enthroned figure of High tells Gangleri (king Gylfi in disguise) that the god Odin is an important deity. High quotes the second of the abovementioned *Grímnismál* stanzas in support.*[4]

The boat is first directly addressed in chapter 43; there Gangleri asks that, if Skíðblaðnir is the best of ships, what there is to know about it, and asks if there is no other ship as good or as large as it. High responds that while Skíðblaðnir is the finest ship and the most ingeniously created, the biggest ship is in fact Naglfar, which is owned by Muspell. The Sons of Ivaldi, who High adds are dwarfs, crafted the ship and gave it to Freyr. High continues that the ship is big enough for all of the gods to travel aboard it with wargear and weapons in tow, and that, as soon as its sail is hoisted, the ship finds good wind, and goes wherever it need be. It is made up of so many parts and with such craftsmanship that, when it is not needed at sea, it may be folded up like cloth and placed into one's pocket. Gangleri comments that Skíðblaðnir sounds like a great ship, and that it must have taken a lot of magic to create something like it.*[5]

The next mention of the ship occurs in *Skáldskaparmál* where, in chapter 6, poetic ways of referring to Freyr are provided. Among other names, Freyr is referred to as "possessor of Skidbladnir and of the boar known as Gullinbursti". The first of the two *Grímnismál* stanzas mentioned above is then provided as reference.*[6]

In chapter 96, a myth explaining Skíðblaðnir's creation is provided. The chapter details that the god Loki once cut off the goddess's Sif's hair in an act of mischief. Sif's husband, Thor, enraged, found Loki, caught hold of him, and threatened to break every last bone in his body. Loki promises to have the Svartálfar make Sif a new head of hair that will grow just as any other. Loki goes to the dwarfs known as Ivaldi's sons, and they made not only Sif a new head of gold hair but also Skíðblaðnir and the spear Gungnir. As the tale continues, Loki risks his neck for the creation of the devastating hammer Mjöllnir, the multiplying ring Draupnir, and the speedy, sky-and-water traveling, bright-bristled boar Gullinbursti. In the end, Loki's wit saves him his head, but results in the stitching together of his lips. The

newly created items are doled out by the dwarfs to Sif, Thor, Odin, and Freyr. Freyr is gifted both Gullinbursti and Skíðblaðnir, the latter of which is again said to receive fair wind whenever its sail was set, and that it will go wherever it needs to, and that it can be folded up much as cloth and placed in one's pocket at will.*[7]

Skíðblaðnir receives a final mention in Skáldskaparmál where, in chapter 75, it appears on a list of ships.*[8]

The ship gets a single mention in the *Heimskringla* book *Ynglinga saga*. In chapter 7, an euhemerized Odin is said to have had various magical abilities, including that "he was also able with mere words to extinguish fires, to calm the sea, and to turn the winds any way he pleased. He had a ship called Skíthblathnir with which he sailed over great seas. It could be folded together like a cloth." *[9]

7.2 See also

• Stone ship, a Germanic burial custom

7.3 Notes

- [1] Simek (2007:289).
- [2] Thorpe (1866:25).
- [3] Bellows (1923:101).
- [4] Faulkes (1995:34).
- [5] Faulkes (1995:36—37).
- [6] Faulkes (1995:75).
- [7] Faulkes (1995:96—97).
- [8] Faulkes (1995:162).
- [9] Hollander (2007:10-11).

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7.4. REFERENCES 19



The third gift —an enormous hammer (1902) by Elmer Boyd Smith. The bottom right corner depicts the ship Skíðblaðnir "afloat" the goddess Sif's new hair.

The Preserver of Life

The Preserver of Life was the ship built in the Epic of Gilgamesh by Utnapishtim and the craftsmen of his village at the request of Enki Ea to hold his wife and relatives, as well as the village craftspeople, the animals to be saved, and various grains and seeds. It was made of solid timber, so that the rays of Shamash (the sun) would not shine in, and of equal dimensions in length and width. The design of the ship was supposedly drawn on the ground by Enki, and the frame of the ark, which was made in five days, was 200 feet in length, width and height, with a floor-space of one acre.*[1] The ark interior had seven floors, each floor divided into 9 sections, finishing the ark fully on the seventh day. The entrance to the ship was sealed once everyone had boarded the ship. Contrary to Noah's Ark, however, it was sealed by clay.

The Flood

The oncoming flood would wipe out all animals and humans that were not on the ship, similar to that of the Noah's Ark story. After twelve days on the water, Utnapishtim opened the hatch of his ship to look around and saw the slopes of Mount Nisir, where he rested his ship for seven days. On the seventh day, he sent a dove out to see if the water had receded, and the dove could find nothing but water, so it returned. Then he sent out a swallow, and just as before, it returned, having found nothing. Finally, Utnapishtim sent out a raven, and the raven saw that the waters had receded, so it circled around, but did not return. Utnapishtim then set all the animals free, and made a sacrifice to the gods. The gods came, and because he had preserved the seed of man while remaining loyal and trusting of his gods, Utnapishtim and his wife were given immortality, as well as a place among the heavenly gods.

8.1 References

Utnapishtim

[1] Rosenberg, Donna (1994). World Mythology: An Anthology of the Great Myths and Epics. Lincolnwood, Chicago: National Textbook Company. p. 196-200. ISBN 0-8442-5765-6.

Flying Dutchman

For other uses, see Flying Dutchman (disambiguation).

The **Flying Dutchman** is a legendary ghost ship that can never make port and is doomed to sail the oceans forever.



The Flying Dutchman by Albert Pinkham Ryder c. 1887 (Smithsonian American Art Museum)

The myth is likely to have originated from 17th-century nautical folklore. The oldest extant version dates to the late 18th century. Sightings in the 19th and 20th centuries reported the ship to be glowing with ghostly light. If hailed by another ship, the crew of the *Flying Dutchman* will try to send messages to land, or to people long dead. In ocean lore, the sight of this phantom ship is a portent of doom.

9.1 Origins

The first reference in print to the ship appears in Chapter VI of *A Voyage to Botany Bay* (1795) (also known as *A Voyage to New South Wales*), attributed to George Barrington (1755–1804):*[nb 1]

I had often heard of the superstition of sailors respecting apparitions and doom, but had never given much credit to the report; it seems that some years since a Dutch man-of-war was lost off the Cape of Good Hope, and every soul on board perished; her consort weathered the gale, and arrived soon after at the Cape. Having refitted, and returning to Europe, they were assailed by a violent tempest nearly in the same latitude. In the night watch some of the people saw, or imagined they saw, a vessel standing for them under a press of sail, as though she would run them down: one in particular affirmed it was the ship that had foundered in the former gale, and that it must certainly be her, or the apparition of her; but on its clearing up, the object, a dark thick cloud, disappeared. Nothing could do away the idea of this phenomenon on the minds of the sailors; and, on their relating the circumstances when they arrived in port, the story spread like wild-fire, and the supposed phantom was called the Flying Dutchman. From the Dutch the English seamen got the infatuation, and there are very few Indiamen, but what has some one on board, who pretends to have seen the apparition.*[1]

The next literary reference, which introduces the motif of punishment for a crime, was in John Leyden (1775–1811): *Scenes of Infancy* (Edinburgh, 1803):

It is a common superstition of mariners, that, in the high southern latitudes on the coast of Africa, hurricanes are frequently ushered in by the appearance of a spectre-ship, denominated the Flying Dutchman ... The crew of this vessel are supposed to have been guilty of some dreadful crime, in the infancy of navigation; and to have been stricken with pestilence ... and are ordained still to traverse the ocean on which they perished, till the period of their penance expire.* [nb 2]

Thomas Moore (1779–1852) in his poem *Written on passing Dead-man's Island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Late in the evening, September, 1804**[2] places the vessel in the north Atlantic: "Fast gliding along, a gloomy bark / Her sails are full, though the wind is still, / And there blows not a breath her sails to fill." A footnote adds: "The above lines were suggested by a superstition very common among sailors, who call this ghost-ship, I think, 'the flying Dutch-man'."

Sir Walter Scott (1771–1832), a friend of John Leyden's, was the first to refer to the vessel as a pirate ship, writing in the notes to *Rokeby; a poem* (first published December 1812) that the ship was "originally a vessel loaded with great wealth, on board of which some horrid act of murder and piracy had been committed" and that the apparition of the ship "is considered by the mariners as the worst of all possible omens."

According to some sources, the 17th century Dutch captain Bernard Fokke is the model for the captain of the ghost ship.*[3] Fokke was renowned for the speed of his trips from the Netherlands to Java and was suspected of being in league with the Devil. The first version of the legend as a story was printed, in *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine* for May 1821,*[4] which puts the scene as the Cape of Good Hope. This story introduces the name Captain Hendrick Vanderdecken for the captain and the motifs (elaborated by later writers) of letters addressed to people long dead being offered to other ships for delivery, but if accepted will bring misfortune; and the captain having sworn to round the Cape of Good Hope though it should take until the day of judgment.

She was an Amsterdam vessel and sailed from port seventy years ago. Her master's name was Van der Decken. He was a staunch seaman, and would have his own way in spite of the devil. For all that, never a sailor under him had reason to complain; though how it is on board with them nobody knows. The story is this: that in doubling the Cape they were a long day trying to weather the Table Bay. However, the wind headed them, and went against them more and more, and Van der Decken walked the deck, swearing at the wind. Just after sunset a vessel spoke him, asking him if he did not mean to go into the bay that night. Van der Decken replied: "May I be eternally damned if I do, though I should beat about here till the day of judgment. And to be sure, he never did go into that bay, for it is believed that he continues to beat about in these seas still, and will do so long enough. This vessel is never seen but with foul weather along with her". *[5]

There have been many reported sightings in the 19th and 20th centuries. One was by Prince George of Wales, the future King George V. During his late adolescence, in 1880, with his elder brother Prince Albert Victor of Wales,

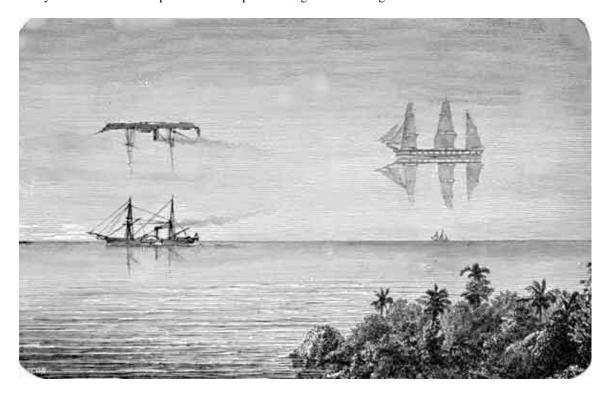
he was on a three-year voyage with their tutor Dalton, temporarily shipped into HMS *Inconstant* after the damaged rudder in their original ship, the 4,000-tonne corvette *Bacchante* was repaired. Off the coast of Australia, between Melbourne and Sydney, Dalton records:

At 4 a.m. the *Flying Dutchman* crossed our bows. A strange red light as of a phantom ship all aglow, in the midst of which light the masts, spars and sails of a brig 200 yards distant stood out in strong relief as she came up on the port bow, where also the officer of the watch from the bridge clearly saw her, as did the quarterdeck midshipman, who was sent forward at once to the forecastle; but on arriving there was no vestige nor any sign whatever of any material ship was to be seen either near or right away to the horizon, the night being clear and the sea calm. Thirteen persons altogether saw her ... At 10.45 a.m. the ordinary seaman who had this morning reported the *Flying Dutchman* fell from the foretopmast crosstrees on to the topgallant forecastle and was smashed to atoms.*[6]

9.2 Explanations as an optical illusion

Main articles: Mirage, Fata Morgana (mirage) and Looming and similar refraction phenomena

Probably the most credible explanation is a superior mirage or Fata Morgana seen at sea.



Book illustration showing superior mirages of two boats

The news soon spread through the vessel that a phantom-ship with a ghostly crew was sailing in the air over a phantom-ocean, and that it was a bad omen, and meant that not one of them should ever see land again. The captain was told the wonderful tale, and coming on deck, he explained to the sailors that this strange appearance was caused by the reflection of some ship that was sailing on the water below this image, but at such a distance they could not see it. There were certain conditions of the atmosphere, he said, when the sun's rays could form a perfect picture in the air of objects on the earth, like the images one sees in glass or water, but they were not generally upright, as in the case of this ship, but reversed—turned bottom upwards. This appearance in the air is called a mirage. He told a sailor to go up to the foretop and look beyond the phantom-ship. The man obeyed, and reported that he could see on the water, below the ship in the air, one precisely like it. Just then another ship was seen in the air, only this one was a steamship, and was bottom-upwards, as the captain had said these mirages generally appeared.

Soon after, the steamship itself came in sight. The sailors were now convinced, and never afterwards believed in phantom-ships.*[7]

Another optical effect, known as looming, occurs when rays of light are bent across different refractive indices. This could make a ship just off the horizon appear hoisted in the air.*[8]

9.3 Adaptations

There is a 20-foot one-design high-performance two-person monohull racing dinghy named the Flying Dutchman (FD). It made its Olympic debut at the 1960 Olympics Games and is still one of the fastest racing dinghies in the world.*[9]

9.3.1 In artworks and design

The Flying Dutchman has been captured in paintings by Albert Ryder, now in the Smithsonian American Art Museum, Washington, D.C., and by Howard Pyle, an artist famous for illustrations of pirates.

Dutch artist Joyce Overheul also adapted the name of *The Flying Dutchman* onto her crochet pattern designs (*The Flying Dutchman Crochet Design*), resembling the similarity of her designs 'roaming' the world just like the ghost ship once did.

Flying Dutchman Tobacco was a popular blend for pipes and smoking. Many of their tins are still readily collected by those who appreciate packaging art and design.

9.3.2 In television series and manga

- The Flying Dutchman is a recurring character on the popular Nickelodeon cartoon series *Spongebob Squarepants*, although he is drawn resembling a famous pirate, Edward Teach, best known as Blackbeard. He is often in episodes that deal with repentance of wrong-doings and moral judgement.
- Carl Barks wrote and drew a 1959 comic book story where Uncle Scrooge, Donald Duck and Huey, Dewey, and Louie meet the Flying Dutchman.*[10]
- In Eiichiro Oda's manga One Piece Vander Decken is the Flying Dutchman's captain.
- In Soul Eater, the Flying Dutchman is the soul of the ghost ship.
- In the 1967 *Spider-man* cartoon episode "Return Of The Flying Dutchman" the legend of the Flying Dutchman was used by Spider-man's enemy Mysterio to frighten villagers and plunder their wealth.
- In a 1976 episode of *Land of the Lost*, the Marshalls discover the captain of a mysterious ship that appears in "the mist". Later in the episode it is discovered that the ship is the *Flying Dutchman*.
- In the Simpsons animated series, Captain Horatio McCallister or just simply The Sea Captain is a sea captain and owner of The Frying Dutchman Restaurant.
- An episode of *Night Gallery*, hosted by Rod Serling, features a shipwrecked survivor who claims he is a Flying Dutchman. He appears to the crews of several famously doomed ships before they sank such as the *Titanic* and the *Lusitania*.
- An episode called "The Arrival" (written by Rod Serling) of the TV series "The Twilight Zone" depicts an airplane that arrives at a busy airport. The airplane is discovered to have no crew, passengers, or luggage. At the tail end of the prior episode ("Two") Rod Serling advertises "The Arrival" as a retelling of the Flying Dutchman tale.
- In an episode of *Supernatural* a ghostship heralds the death of the victims of a first mates ghost. The ship is compared to the flying Dutchman by one of the characters.
- The pilot of *White Collar* (2009) sees the protagonist figure out the FBI cannot track a suspect as they have given him the nickname "The Dutchman", and a link to the ship is made

9.3. ADAPTATIONS 25

• In an episode of 'Xena Warrior Princess', called "The Lost Mariner', the Flying Dutchman motif is merged into Greek mythology, presenting the wanderer as a hero who offended the sea-god Poseidon.

9.3.3 In film

The story was dramatised in the 1951 film *Pandora and the Flying Dutchman*, starring James Mason (who plays the Dutch Captain Hendrick van der Zee) and Ava Gardner (who plays Pandora). In this version, the Flying Dutchman is a man, not a ship. The two-hour long film, scripted by its director Albert Lewin, sets the main action on the Mediterranean coast of Spain during the summer of 1930. Centuries earlier the Dutchman had killed his wife, wrongly believing her to be unfaithful. Providence condemned him to roam the seas until he found the true meaning of love. In the only plot device taken from earlier versions of the story, once every seven years the Dutchman is allowed ashore for six months to search for a woman who will love him enough to die for him, releasing him from his curse, and he finds her in Pandora.

In Disney's *Pirates of the Caribbean* films, the ship made its first appearance in *Dead Man's Chest* (2006) under the command of the fictional captain, Davy Jones. The story and attributes of the ship were inspired by the actual Flying Dutchman of nautical lore.

9.3.4 In literature

The 1797–98 poem by Samuel Taylor Coleridge, *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, contains a similar account of a ghost ship, which may have been influenced by the tale of the *Flying Dutchman*.*[11]*[12]

This story was adapted in the English melodrama *The Flying Dutchman; or the Phantom Ship: a Nautical Drama, in three acts* (1826)*[nb 3] by Edward Fitzball (1792–1873), music by George Rodwell,*[13] and the novel *The Phantom Ship* (1839)*[nb 4] by Frederick Marryat. This in turn was later adapted as *Het Vliegend Schip* (*The Flying Ship*) by the Dutch clergyman, A. H. C. Römer. In Marryat's version, Terneuzen, in the Netherlands, is described as the home of the captain, who is called *Van der Decken* (*of the decks*).

The Edgar Allan Poe short story MS. Found in a Bottle (1833) recounts a story of a shipwreck survivor who finds himself on an ancient ship with an aged and listless crew. The descriptions of the ship mirror the Flying Dutchman legend.

Another adaptation was *The Flying Dutchman on Tappan Sea* by Washington Irving (1855), in which the captain is named Ramhout van Dam. Irving had already used the story (based on Moore's poem) in his *Bracebridge Hall* (1822). Hedvig Ekdal describes visions of the Flying Dutchman from the books she reads in the attic in Henrik Ibsen's "The Wild Duck" (1884)

John Boyle O'Reilly's *The Flying Dutchman* was first published in The Wild Goose, a handwritten newspaper produced by Fenian convicts being transported to Western Australia in 1867.*[14] Later versions with minor variations were also published.

British author Brian Jacques wrote a trilogy of fantasy/young adult novels concerning two reluctant members of the Dutchman's crew, a young boy and his dog, who were swept off the ship by a wave on the night the ship was cursed; however, the same angel who pronounced the curse on the ship and crew appeared to them and blessed them, charging them to help those in need. The first novel was titled *Castaways of the Flying Dutchman* and was first published by Puffin Books in 2001. The second was titled *The Angel's Command* and was released by Puffin in 2003. The third and final book of the trilogy (due to Jacques' death in 2011) was titled *Voyage of Slaves* and was released by Puffin in 2006

In the novel *The Flying Dutchman* (2013) by the Russian novelist Anatoly Kudryavitsky, the ghost ship rebuilds itself from an old barge abandoned on the bank of a big Russian river, and offers itself as a refuge to a persecuted musicologist.

The comic fantasy *Flying Dutch* by Tom Holt is a version of the Flying Dutchman story. In this version, the Dutchman is not a ghost ship but crewed by immortals who can only visit land once every seven years when the unbearable smell that is a side-effect of the elixir of life wears off.

The Roger Zelazny short story "And Only I Am Escaped To Tell thee" tells of a sailor who escapes from the Flying Dutchman and is rescued by sailors who welcome him to the Mary Celeste.

Ward Moore in his 1951 story "Flying Dutchman" *[15] used the myth as a metaphor for an automated bomber

plane which continues to fly over an Earth where humanity long since totally destroyed itself and all life in a nuclear war.

9.3.5 In opera and theatre

Richard Wagner's opera, *The Flying Dutchman* (1843) is adapted from an episode in Heinrich Heine's satirical novel *The Memoirs of Mister von Schnabelewopski* (*Aus den Memoiren des Herrn von Schnabelewopski*) (1833), in which a character attends a theatrical performance of *The Flying Dutchman* in Amsterdam. Heine had first briefly used the legend in his *Reisebilder: Die Nordsee* (*Pictures of Travel: the North Sea*) (1826), which simply repeats from *Blackwood's Magazine* the features of the vessel being seen in a storm and sending letters addressed to persons long since dead. In his 1833 elaboration, it was once thought that it may have been based on Fitzball's play, which was playing at the Adelphi Theatre in London, but the run had ended on 7 April 1827 and Heine did not arrive in London until the 14th.*[nb 5] Heine was the first author to introduce the chance of salvation through a woman's devotion and the opportunity to set foot on land every seven years to seek a faithful wife. This imaginary play, unlike Fitzball's play, which has the Cape of Good Hope location, in Heine's account is transferred to the North Sea off Scotland. Wagner's opera was similarly planned to take place off the coast of Scotland, although during the final rehearsals he transferred the action to another part of the North Sea, off Norway.

The opera's overture would later become the signature theme for *Captain Video and His Video Rangers*, one of television's earliest children's potboiler series.

Pierre-Louis Dietsch composed an opera *Le vaisseau fantôme*, ou *Le maudit des mers* ("The Phantom Ship, or The Accursed of the Sea"), which was first performed on 9 November 1842 at the Paris Opera. The libretto by Paul Foucher and H. Révoil was based on Walter Scott's *The Pirate* as well as Captain Marryat's *The Phantom Ship* and other sources, alough Wagner thought it was based on the scenario of his own opera, which he had just sold to the Opera. The similarity of Dietsch's opera to Wagner's is slight, although Wagner's assertion is often repeated. Berlioz thought *Le vaisseau fantôme* too solemn, but other reviewers were more favourable.*[16]*[17]

Amiri Baraka (formerly LeRoi Jones) wrote the play "Dutchman" in 1964. The play's abstract nature makes it difficult to draw a direct correlation between it and the myth, but its emphasis on fate and doom recasts themes of the legend in terms of race relations in the contemporary United States.

9.3.6 In music

- In 1949 RCA Victor, inventors of the single 45 RPM format, released as one of their first 45s a recording of the legend in song in bandleader Hugo Winterhalter's "The Flying Dutchman", sung as a sea shanty.
- Jethro Tull refer to the *Flying Dutchman* on their 1979 album *Stormwatch*.
- Tori Amos refers to the *Flying Dutchman* in her 1992 single B side "Flying Dutchman", the A side being "China". It was re-released in 2012 on her album *Gold Dust* and performed on The Gold Dust Orchestral Tour.
- Jimmy Buffett refers to the *Flying Dutchman* in his 1995 song "Remittance Man" on the album *Barometer Soup*.
- Rufus Wainwright refers to the *Flying Dutchman* in his song "Flying Dutchman" on the album *Poses*.
- Carach Angren wrote a concept album about the *Flying Dutchman* entitled *Death Came Through a Phantom Ship*.
- God Dethroned, a Dutch death metal band, featured the song "Soul Capture 1562" about the *Flying Dutchman* on their album *Bloody Blasphemy*.
- In the 1969 classic self-titled album by The Band, the *Flying Dutchman* was referenced in the song "Rockin' Chair".
- Iron Maiden a Heavy Metal band produced a song titled, "Rime of The Ancient Mariner" which is loosely based on the poem of the same name, and is in reference to the, "Flying Dutchman" tale.

9.4. SEE ALSO 27

9.3.7 In video games

The Flying Dutchman is a cheat unit in the original Age of Empires computer game. It is a ship that can travel on both land and sea.

In the 1993 multiplatform game *Alone in the Dark* 2, fictional detective Edward Carnby investigates a missing girl who he discovers has been kidnapped by the undead One-Eyed Jack who, in the game, is captain of the undead crew of *The Flying Dutchman*.

9.3.8 In amusement park

The Efteling amusement park in the Netherlands has a roller coaster called The Flying Dutchman which features a character named Willem van der Decken.

Worlds of Fun amusement park in Kansas City, Missouri has a swinging boat ride called The Flying Dutchman.

9.3.9 In aviation

KLM Royal Dutch Airlines references the endless traveling aspect of the famous story by having *Flying Dutchman* painted on its numerous aircraft below the cockpit and to the right of the nose.

9.3.10 In education

The nickname of Lebanon Valley College is *the Flying Dutchmen*, and its mascot *the Flying Dutchman*. The nickname references the college's location in the Pennsylvania Dutch Country.

9.4 See also

- Peter Rugg
- Wandering Jew
- Wild Hunt
- List of ghosts

9.5 References

Notes

- [1] George Barrington (originally Waldron) was tried at the Old Bailey in London in September 1790 for picking pockets and sentenced to transportation for seven years. He embarked on the convict transport *Active* which sailed from Portsmouth on 27 March 1791 and arrived at Port Jackson (Sydney), just to the north of Botany Bay, on 26 September, having anchored briefly at Table Bay in very late June. The various accounts of his voyage and activities in New South Wales appear to be literary forgeries by publishers capitalising on both his notoriety and in public interest for the new colony, combining turns of phrase from his trial speeches with plagiarised genuine accounts of other writers concerning Botany Bay. See *George Barrington's Voyage to Botany Bay* edited by Suzanne Rickard (Leicester University Press, 2001). *A Voyage to Botany Bay* and *A Voyage to New South Wales*, both issued in 1795, were revamped versions of *An Impartial and Circumstantial Narrative of the Present State of Botany Bay*, which had appeared in 1793–94, but which did not include the Flying Dutchman reference.
- [2] Leyden says Chaucer echoing Dante's Inferno Second Circle of Hell alludes to a punishment of a similar kind in his poem *The Parlement of Foules*: "And breakers of the laws, sooth to sain, / And lecherous folk, after that they been dead, / Shall whirl about the world alway in pain, / Till many a world be passed out of dread.
- [3] The 48-page text published c. 1829 acknowledges Blackwood's 1821 story as the source, although the two have little in common.

- [4] Originally published in instalments in the *New Monthly Magazine* (London) March–October 1837, January–February 1838 & February–August 1839 before appearing in book form in 1839. Marryat's gripping story added no new elements to the legend.
- [5] The play was not published until its revival in 1829. On all these points see Musical Times (London), March 1986, p. 133.

Citations

- [1] Barrington 2004, p. 30
- [2] Published in Epistles, Odes, and other poems (London, 1806)
- [3] Eyers, Jonathan (2011). Don't Shoot the Albatross!: Nautical Myths and Superstitions. A&C Black, London, UK. ISBN 978-1-4081-3131-2.
- [4] The author has been identified as John Howison (fl. 1821–59) of the East India Company. See Alan Lang Strout: *A Bibliography of Articles in Blackwood's Magazine 1817–1825* (1959, p. 78).
- [5] Music with Ease (2008). "Source of the Legend of The Flying Dutchman". Music with Ease. Retrieved 2008-02-23.
- [6] Rose, Kenneth (1988) King George V
- [7] Round-about Rambles in Lands of Fact and Fancy by Frank R. Stockton
- [8] Meyer-Arendt 1995, p. 431
- [9] Portsmouth tables
- [10] Carl Barks (March 1959). "Uncle Scrooge The Flying Dutchman". Retrieved 2014-12-23.
- [11] Fulmer, O. Bryan (October 1969). "The Ancient Mariner and the Wandering Jew". Studies in Philology 66 (5): 797–815. JSTOR 4173656.
- [12] John Clute and John Grant, ed. (1999). The encyclopedia of fantasy. Macmillan. p. 210. ISBN 978-0-312-19869-5. Excerpt available at Google Books.
- [13] Lee, Sidney, ed. (1897). "Rodwell, George Herbert Buonaparte". *Dictionary of National Biography* **49**. London: Smith, Elder & Co.
- [14] O'Reilly, John Boyle (1867). The Flying Dutchman (O'Reilly). Wikisource. p. 10 (Christmas Number). [18]
- [15] David Seed (31 October 2013). American Science Fiction and the Cold War: Literature and Film. Routledge. p. 126. ISBN 978-1-135-95382-9.
- [16] Cooper & Millington 1992.
- [17] Cooper & Millington 2001.

Bibliography

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- Meyer-Arendt, Jurgen (1995) [1972], Introduction to Modern and Classical Optics, Prentice-Hall, Inc., ISBN 0-13-124356-X

9.6 External links

- Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine, May 1821
- On the history and sightings of the Flying Dutchman
- Mainly about Wagner's possible sources
- Melodramatic Possessions: The Flying Dutchman, South Africa and the Imperial Stage ca. 1830
- The Phantom Ship by Marryat at Project Gutenberg

9.6. EXTERNAL LINKS 29

• USA premiere of 1841 critical edition of Wagner's The Flying Dutchman at Boston Lyric Opera, April & May 2013

- The legend of the Flying Dutchman
- "The Flying Dutchman, Harbinger of Watery Doom" article on Atlas Obscura

Four Treasures of the Tuatha Dé Danann

In the Mythological Cycle of early Irish literature, the **four treasures** (**or jewels**) **of the Tuatha Dé Danann** are four magical items which the mythological Tuatha Dé Danann are supposed to have brought with them from the four island cities Murias, Falias, Gorias and Findias, when they arrived in Ireland.

10.1 Sources

Together the four treasures form the subject of at least three Middle Irish texts:

- an anecdote in an interpolated recension of the legendary *Lebor Gabála Érenn* ("The Book of the Taking of Ireland"), here **LG**,
- the introduction, interpolated from *Lebor Gabála*, of *Cath Maige Tuired* ("The Second Battle of Mag Tuired"), here **CMT**,*[1] and
- "The Four Jewels", a later, short text in the Yellow Book of Lecan, consisting of a prose introduction and a poem.

In the 17th century, Geoffrey Keating drew on a version of the former for his Foras feasa ar Éirinn.*[2]

10.2 Summary

The first recension of *Lebor Gabála* describes the Tuatha Dé Danann as having resided in "the northern islands of the world", where they were instructed in the magic arts, before finally moving in dark clouds to Connaught in Ireland. It mentions only the *Lia Fáil* as having been imported from across the sea.*[3]

One of the recensions of *Lebar Gabála*, *Cath Maige Tuired* and a separate text elaborate on these events. CMT and LG tell that there were four cities located on the northern islands of the world (*i n-insib tūascertachaib in domain*), called Falias, Gorias, Findias and Murias.*[4] "The Four Jewels" also refers to the cities, but appears to locate them at *Lochlann* and contends that the Tuatha Dé crossed the seas in their fleet rather than in a mist. The Tuatha Dé Danann—described as the offspring of Béothach son of Iarbonel—landed here to be instructed in the magic arts, embracing druidry (*druidecht*), knowledge (*fis*), prophecy (*fáitsine*) and skill in magic (*amainsecht*). Each island is said to have had its poet (*fili*) who was skilled in occult arts.*[5]

When the Tuatha Dé migrated to Ireland, they are said to have brought four magical instruments from these cities:

A. C. L. Brown and R. S. Loomis equate Lug's spear with the *Lúin* of Celtchar, which in *Togail Bruidne Dá Derga* is said to have been discovered in the Battle of Mag Tuired. There is however no sign of a literary tradition which connects the two weapons. A different spear belonging to Lug is the so-called spear of Assal in *Oidheadh Chloinne Tuireann*. It was brought back to Lug by the sons of Tuireann in atonement for their killing of Cian.

10.3. SEE ALSO 31

10.3 See also

• Thirteen Treasures of the Island of Britain

10.4 Notes

[1] Although the text may go back to the 9th century, this introductory section seems to have been inserted by a Middle Irish redactor on the basis of *Lebor Gabála*. See Gerard Murphy, "Notes on *Cath Maige Tuired*." *Éigse* 7 (1954). p. 195.

- [2] Keating, Foras feasa ar Éirinn. Book 1, section 10.
- [3] Lebor Gabála Érenn, ed. and tr. R.A.S. Macalister. Lebor Gabála Érenn: The Book of the Taking of Ireland. Part IV. Irish Texts Society 41. First Redaction. §§ 55-7.
- [4] Lebar Gabála Érenn Part IV § 203; Cath Maige Tuired §§ 1-2.
- [5] Lebar Gabála Érenn Part IV § 203; Cath Maige Tuired §§ 1-2.

10.5 Sources

- Lebor Gabála Érenn, ed. and tr. R.A.S. Macalister. Lebor Gabála Érenn: The Book of the Taking of Ireland. Part IV. Irish Texts Society 41. London, 1941. Section VII, § 304-5. Portion of the text reproduced here.
- Cath Maige Tuired, ed. and tr. Elizabeth A. Gray, Cath Maige Tuired: The Second Battle of Mag Tuired. Irish Texts Society 52. Kildare, 1982.
- "The Four jewels", Middle Irish poem with prose introduction in the Yellow Book of Lecan, ed. and tr. Vernam Hull. "The four jewels of the Tuatha Dé Danann." *Zeitschrift für celtische Philologie* 18 (1930): 73-89. Edition available from CELT. Translation available here (Mary Jones) and here (proof-corrected). Hull's article includes commentary.
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10.6 Further reading

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- Dumézil, Georges. Jupiter, Mars, Quirinus. Essai sur la conception indo-européenne de la société et sur les origines de Rome. Gallimard, Paris, 1941. Esp. p. 228.

Imperial Regalia of Japan

The Imperial Regalia of Japan (三種の神器 Sanshu no Jingi / Mikusa no Kandakara), also known as the Three Sacred Treasures of Japan, consist of the sword Kusanagi (草薙劍 Kusanagi no Tsurugi), the mirror Yata no Kagami (八咫鏡), and the jewel Yasakani no Magatama (八尺瓊曲玉). The regalia represent the three primary virtues: valor (the sword), wisdom (the mirror), and benevolence (the jewel).*[1]

Due to the legendary status of these items, their locations are not confirmed, but it is commonly thought that the sword is located at Atsuta Shrine in Nagoya, the jewel is located at Kōkyo (the Imperial Palace) in Tōkyō, and the mirror is located in the Ise Grand Shrine in Mie Prefecture.*[2]

11.1 Tradition

Since 690, the presentation of these items to the Emperor by the priests at the shrine has been a central element of the imperial enthronement ceremony. This ceremony is not public, and these items are by tradition only seen by the emperor and certain priests. Because of this, no known photographs or drawings exist. Two of the three treasures (the jewel and sword, as well as the emperor's seal and the state seal) were last seen during the accession and enthronement of Emperor Akihito in 1989 and 1993, but were shrouded in packages.

According to legend, these treasures were brought to earth by Ninigi-no-Mikoto, legendary ancestor of the Japanese imperial line, when his grandmother, the Sun Goddess Amaterasu, sent him to pacify Japan. These treasures were eventually said to be passed down to Emperor Jimmu, who was the first Emperor of Japan and was also Ninigi's great-grandson. Traditionally, they were a symbol of the emperor's divinity as a descendant of Amaterasu, confirming his legitimacy as paramount ruler of Japan. When Amaterasu hid in a cave from her brother Susanoo, thus plunging the world in darkness, the goddess Ame-no-Uzume hung the mirror and jewels outside the cave and lured her out of the cave, at which point she saw her own reflection and was startled enough that the gods could pull her out of the cave. Susanoo later presented the sword Kusanagi to Amaterasu as a token of apology; he had obtained it from the body of an eight-headed serpent, Orochi.

At the conclusion of the Genpei War in 1185, the 8 year-old Emperor Antoku and the Regalia were under the control of the Taira clan. They were present when the Taira were defeated by the rival Minamoto clan at the Battle of Danno-Ura, which was fought on boats in the shallow Kanmon Straits. The child-emperor's grandmother threw herself, the boy, the sword and the jewel into the sea to avoid capture. The mirror was captured, but according to the main account of the battle, a Minamato soldier who tried to force open the box containing it was struck blind. The jewel was recovered shortly afterwards by divers, but the sword was lost.*[3] There are a number of medieval texts relating to the loss of the sword, which variously contend that a replica was forged afterwards, that the lost sword was itself a replica or that the sword was returned to land by supernatural forces.*[4]

The possession by the Southern Dynasty of the Imperial Regalia during the Northern and Southern dynasties period in the 14th century has led modern chroniclers to define it as the legitimate dynasty for purposes of reign names and genealogy.

The importance of the imperial regalia to Japan is evident also from the declarations made by Emperor Shōwa to Kōichi Kido on 25 and 31 July 1945 at the end of World War II, when he ordered the Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal of Japan to protect them "at all costs".*[5]



Artist's impression of the Imperial Regalia of Japan.

11.2 Other interpretations

The regalia can also be interpreted as the mirror representing the sun; the jewel, the moon; and the sword, the stars.*[1]

Alvin and Heidi Toffler's *Powershift* use them to symbolize the three kinds of power they distinguish: force (sword), wealth (jewel) and knowledge (mirror.)*[6]

11.3 See also

- Japanese mythology
- Shinto
- Crown Jewels
- Order of the Sacred Treasure

11.4 References

- [1], ミニ講話宮司のいい話 (in Japanese).
- [2] A replica of the mirror is also said to be in the Kashikodokoro, one of the Three Palace Sanctuaries
- [3] Turnbull, Stephen (2006) Samurai: The World of the Warrior, Osprey Publishing, ISBN 978-1841769516 (pp. 33-38)
- [4] Selinger, Vyjayanthi R. (2013) Authorizing the Shogunate: Ritual and Material Symbolism in the Literary Construction of Warrior Order, Brill Academic Publishers, ISBN 978-9004248106 (pp. 114-118)
- [5] Kido Koichi nikii, Tokyo, Daigaku Shuppankai, 1966, pp.1120–21.
- [6] Powershift: Knowledge, Wealth and Violence at the Edge of the 21st Century (1990), Bantam Books, Alvin and Heidi Toffler, ISBN 0-553-29215-3.

Karun Treasure

Karun Treasure is the name given to a collection of 363 valuable Lydian artifacts dating from the 7th century BC and originating from Uşak Province in western Turkey, which were the subject of a legal battle between Turkey and New York Metropolitan Museum of Art between 1987–1993 and which were returned to Turkey in 1993 after the Museum admitted it had known the objects were stolen when they had purchased them. The collection is alternatively known as the *Lydian Hoard*. The items are exhibited in the Uşak Museum of Archaeology.

The collection made sensational news once again in May 2006 when a key piece, a golden hippocamp, on display in Uşak Museum along with the rest of the collection, was discovered to have been switched with a fake, probably between March and August 2005,*[1]

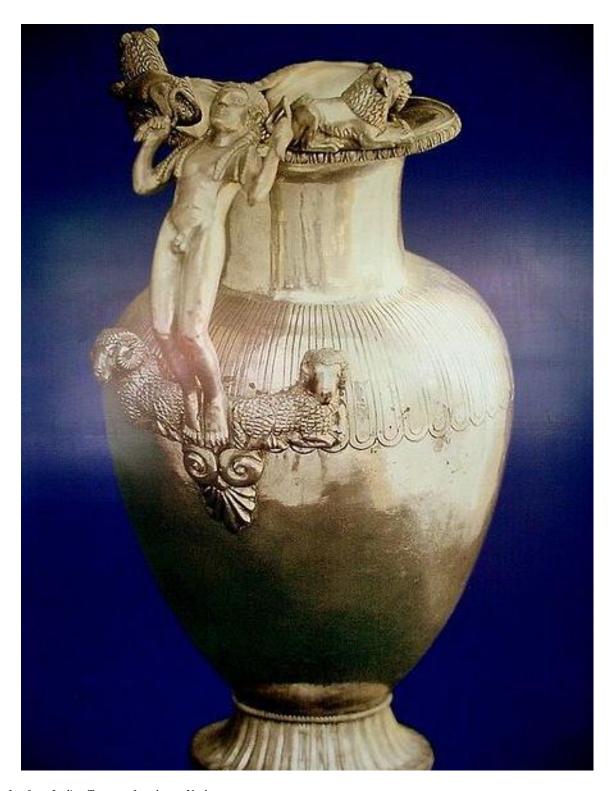
Yet another term used for the collection is "Croesus Treasure". Although the artifacts were closely contemporary to Croesus, whether they should be directly associated with the legendary Lydian king or not remains debatable. Croesus' wealth had repercussions on a number of Asian cultures in a vein similar to his fame in the western cultures, and is referred to either as Qarun (Arabic) or Karun (Turkish), with the mythical proportions of his fortune also echoed in various ways, parallel to the English language expression "as rich as Croesus".*[2] This explains why the term "Karun Treasure" took hold, and in any case, the king Croesus' Treasure consisted of more than 363 pieces and the tomb chamber tumulus where most artifacts were discovered (they originate from close but different sites) was that of a woman.*[3]

12.1 Discovery and smuggling

The main and the most precious part of the treasure comes from a tomb chamber of a Lydian princess reached through illegal excavations carried out by three fortune-seekers from Uşak's depending Güre village, at the proximity of which the tomb was located, at the locality called Toptepe. After having dug for days and unable to break through the marble masonry of the chamber door, they had dynamited the roof of the tomb in the night of 6 June 1966, to be the first to see the breathtaking sight of the buried Lydian noblewoman and her treasures after 2600 years. The treasure looted from this particular tomb was enriched by further finds by the same men in other tumuli of the locality during 1966-1967, and the collection was smuggled outside Turkey in separate dispatches through İzmir and Amsterdam, to be bought by the Metropolitan Museum of Art between 1967–1968, at an invoiced cost of 1,2 million US Dollars for 200 of the pieces within the collection.*[4]

12.2 Legal battle

The efforts made by successive Turkish governments to retrieve the collection were incited since the very beginning and followed until conclusion by the journalist Özgen Acar.*[5] Acar had chanced upon some pieces of the collection for the first time in 1984 in a Met Museum catalogue and had informed Turkey's Ministry of Culture of their clear provenance, while he also wrote several articles and pursued the bureaucratic channels within Turkey with insistence throughout the affair. He acted as a voluntary envoy of the Ministry within the frame of the judicial case launched in New York City in 1987 and brought to conclusion in 1993,*[6] at the same time as he was named consultant in the larger framework of the Turkey's participation in the work carried out by UNIDROIT regarding the protection of



Jug from Lydian Treasure found near Uşak

historic, cultural and religious heritage. Acar's name is also synonymous in Turkey for the retrieval of another set of smuggled archaeological goods, termed "Elmalı Treasure" in reference to their site of origin, the town of Elmalı in southwestern Turkey, and involving this time Lydian coins and extremely rare decadrachms dating from the period of the Delian League, with the Boston Museum of Fine Arts as his opposite party.*[7]

12.3 Uşak Museum case

The clear need for a museum worthy of the treasure was being voiced ever since the artifacts had returned to Turkey.*[8] With the seizure by the authorities of ten other illegally excavated artifacts in 1998, further archaeological discoveries and the known presence of eight gold pieces that had appeared in 2000 during an exhibition in a Paris private gallery for which attempts for retrieval were yet to be made, a handsome collection of base consisting of a total of 375 pieces was already accumulated. But the small museum in Uşak where the collection was placed, more focused on storage of Ushak carpets and operating under conditions of budgetary and staff restraints,*[9] did not fully meet the requirements for the preservation of Karun Treasure. Doubts about the site's suitability were reinforced by the filing of currently unresolved legal action against museum staff regarding the 2007 theft. The museum's former director remains the only person to be still kept in custody among the ten initially accused in the frame of the case around the hippocamp's replacement with a fake.

12.4 Curse of the treasure

Some in Uşak and beyond associate the treasure with a curse. None of the villagers who took part in the 1960s digs, and who were kept under arrest for a brief period at the time, lived the rest of their days in happy notes.

12.5 See also

• Illicit antiquities

12.6 References

- [1] "Croesus riches replaced by fakes". British Broadcasting Corporation. Retrieved 2006-05-29.
- [2] Qarun and reference to his wealth mentioned in the Koran ([28:76] to [28:82]). In Persian mythology, to which the other citations could be connected, the Qârun Treasure is a treasure said to be in perpetual motion under the ground. The phrase harta karun (literally Croesus' Wealth) also worked into the Malay language as the word for treasure and is synonymous with the term buried treasure. Ganj-e-Qarun (Croesus Treasure) was also an Iranian movie made in 1965 by Siamak Yasami and widely regarded as one of the classics of Iranian cinema. The movie recounts the story of a very wealthy man who attempts suicide and then finds happiness in the simplicity of a pauper's home.
- [3] Nezih Başgelen. "The rich kings of the thousand hills, Lydians". Turkish Ceramic Federation. Retrieved 2005-07-01.
- [4] "Uşak-New York" (in Turkish). TAY Project. Retrieved 2001-04-01.
- [5] Michel Bessières. "We have to change the buyer's attitude". UNESCO Courrier. Archived from the original on 2001-07-23. Retrieved 2001-04-01.
- [6] Thomas Adcock. "The Art Theft Experts". New York Law Journal. Retrieved 2006-02-24.
- [7] "Elmalı treasure". Museum Security.
- [8] Özgen Acar. "Croesus: The poverty of treasure". Cumhuriyet. Retrieved 2003-07-21.
- [9] The number of experts working in Turkish museums halved from 1,500 to 750 in the last ten years. 14 July 2006 "Croesus: Ten people charged in Croesus theft case". Turkish Daily News. Retrieved 2003-07-21.

Pandora's box

This article is about the mythological artifact. For other uses, see Pandora's box (disambiguation).

Pandora's box is an artifact in Greek mythology, taken from the myth of Pandora's creation in Hesiod's *Works and Days*.*[1] The "box" was actually a large jar $(\pi i\theta \circ \varsigma pithos)^*$ [2] given to Pandora $(\Pi \alpha v \delta \acute{\omega} \rho \alpha$, "all-gifted", "all-giving"),*[3] which contained all the evils of the world.

Today the phrase "to open Pandora's box" means to perform an action that may seem small or innocent, but that turns out to have severely detrimental and far-reaching consequences.

13.1 In mythology

Main article: Pandora

In classical Greek mythology, Pandora was the first woman on Earth. Zeus ordered Hephaestus to create her. So he did, using water and earth.*[4] The gods endowed her with many gifts: Athena clothed her, Aphrodite gave her beauty, Apollo gave her musical ability, and Hermes gave her speech.*[5]

When Prometheus stole fire from heaven, Zeus took vengeance by presenting Pandora to Prometheus' brother Epimetheus. Pandora was given a wedding gift of a beautiful jar, with instructions to not open it under any circumstance. Impelled by her curiosity (given to her by the gods), Pandora opened it and all evil contained therein escaped and spread over the earth. She hastened to close the container, but the whole contents had escaped; Apate and all the others, except for one thing that lay at the bottom – the Spirit of Hope, named Elpis.*[6] Pandora, deeply saddened by what she had done, feared she would have to face Zeus' wrath, since she had failed her duty. However, Zeus did not punish Pandora because he knew this would happen.

13.2 Etymology of the "box"

The original Greek word was 'pithos', which is a large jar, sometimes as large as a small person (Diogenes of Sinope was said to have once slept in one). It was used for storage of wine, oil, grain or other provisions, or, ritually, as a container for a human body for burying.*[7]*[8] In the case of Pandora, this jar may have been made of clay for use as storage as in the usual sense, or of bronze metal as an unbreakable prison.*[9]

The mistranslation of *pithos* is usually attributed to the 16th century humanist Erasmus of Rotterdam who translated Hesiod's tale of Pandora into Latin. Erasmus rendered *pithos* as the Greek *pyxis*, meaning "box".*[10] The phrase "Pandora's box" has endured ever since. This misconception was further reinforced by Dante Gabriel Rossetti's painting *Pandora*.

13.3. SEE ALSO 39



Pandora opens the pithos given to her by Zeus, thus releasing all the bad things of the world.

13.3 See also

• Chalice



A pithos from Crete, c. 675 BC. Louvre

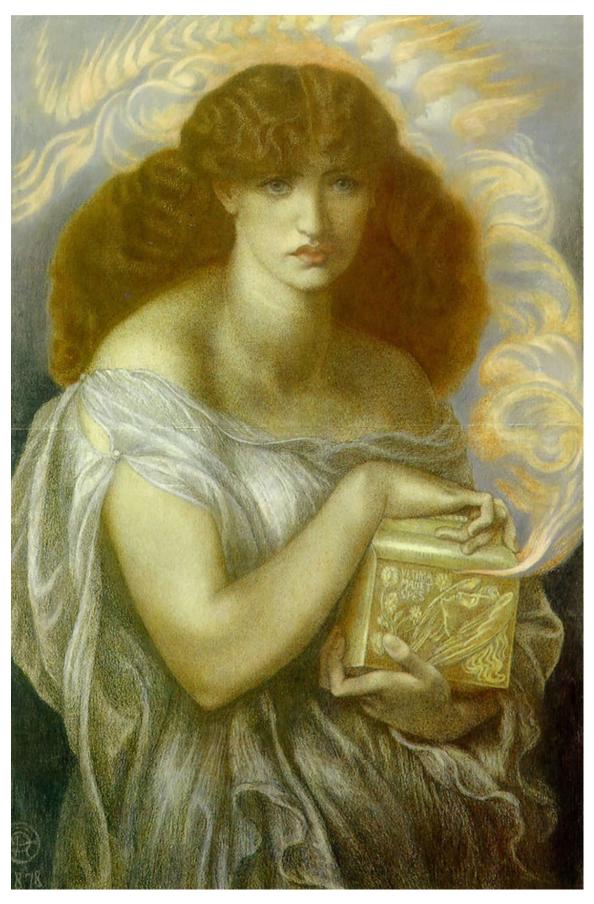
13.4. NOTES 41



An Attic pyxis, 440-430 BC. British Museum

13.4 Notes

- [1] Hesiod, Works and Days 47ff..
- [2] Hesiod, Works and Days 94.
- [3] Evelyn-White, note to Hesiod, *Works and Days* 81.; Schlegel and Weinfield, "Introduction to Hesiod" p. 6; Meagher, p. 148; Samuel Tobias Lachs, "The Pandora-Eve Motif in Rabbinic Literature", *The Harvard Theological Review*, Vol. 67, No. 3 (Jul., 1974), pp. 341-345.
- [4] Hesiod, Works and Days 61-64.
- [5] Hesiod, Works and Days 62–82.
- [6] Hesiod, Works and Days 96-99.
- [7] Cf. Harrison, Jane Ellen, Prolegomena to the Study of Greek history, Chapter II, The Pithoigia, pp.42-43. Cf. also Figure 7 which shows an ancient Greek pot painting in the University of Jena where Hermes is presiding over a body in a pithos buried in the ground. "In the vase painting in fig.7 from a lekythos in the University Museum of Jena we see a Pithoigia of quite other and solemn booty. A large pithos is sunk deep into the ground. It has served as a grave. ... The vase-painting in fig. 7 must not be regarded as an actual conscious representation of the rupent rite performed on the first day of the Anthesteria. It is more general in content; it is in fact simply a representation of ideas familiar to every Greek, that the pithos was a grave-jar, that from such grave-jars souls escaped and to them necessarily returned, and that Hermes was Psychopompos, Evoker and Revoker of souls. The vase-painting is in fact only another form of the scene so often represented on Athenian white lekythoi, in which the souls flutter round the grave-stele. The grave-jar is but the earlier form of sepulture; the little winged figures, the Keres, are identical in both classes of vase-painting."
- [8] Cf. Verdenius, p.64



Rosetti's Pandora (1879)

13.5. REFERENCES 43

[9] Cf. Jenifer Neils, in *The Girl in the Pithos: Hesiod's Elpis*, in "Periklean Athens and its Legacy, Problems and Perspectives", p.41 especially. "Many scholars wish to see a close analogy between Pandora herself, made from clay, and the clay pithos which dispenses evils, and they have even identified the girl in the jar as Pandora. They ignore, however, Hesiod's description of Pandora's pithos as *arrektoisi* or unbreakable. This adjective, which is usually applied to objects of metal, such as gold fetters and hobbles in Homer (*Il.* 13.37, 15.20), would strongly imply that the jar is made of metal rather than earthenware, which is obviously capable of being broken. More arguments by Neils foll)

[10] In his notes to Hesiod's *Works and Days* (p.168) M.L. West has surmised that Erasmus may have confused the story of Pandora with the story found elsewhere of a box which was opened by Psyche.

13.5 References

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- Hesiod; Works and Days, in The Homeric Hymns and Homerica with an English Translation by Hugh G. Evelyn-White, Cambridge, MA., Harvard University Press; London, William Heinemann Ltd. 1914. Online version at the Perseus Digital Library.
- Lamberton, Robert, *Hesiod*, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1988. ISBN 0-300-04068-7. Cf. Chapter II, "The Theogony", and Chapter III, "The Works and Days", especially pp. 96–103 for a side-by-side comparison and analysis of the Pandora story.
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Relics associated with Jesus

A number of relics associated with Jesus have been claimed and displayed throughout the history of Christianity. Some people believe in the authenticity of some relics; others doubt the authenticity of various items. For instance, the sixteenth-century Catholic theologian Erasmus wrote sarcastically about the proliferation of relics, and the number of buildings that could have been constructed from the wood claimed to be from the cross used in the Crucifixion of Christ.*[1] Similarly, while experts debate whether Christ was crucified with three or with four nails, at least thirty Holy Nails continue to be venerated as relics across Europe.*[2]

Some relics, such as purported remnants of the Crown of Thorns, receive only a modest number of pilgrims, while others, such as the Shroud of Turin (which is associated with an approved Catholic devotion to the Holy Face of Jesus), receive millions of pilgrims, which in recent years have included Pope John Paul II and Pope Benedict XVI.*[3]

As Christian teaching generally states that Christ was assumed into heaven corporeally, there are few bodily relics, unlike relics of saints.

14.1 Shrouds and faces

A number of *acheiropoieta* (i.e. not made by hand) images reported to be of the face of Jesus, or have impressions of his face or body on a piece of cloth have been written about or displayed over the centuries. In most cases these images are subject to intense debate and speculation.

Although various devotions to the face of Jesus have been practiced, the term "Holy Face of Jesus" as used today only relates to the specific devotions approved by Pope Leo XIII in 1895 and Pope Pius XII in 1958 in regards to the image from the Shroud of Turin. *[4]

14.1.1 Shroud of Turin

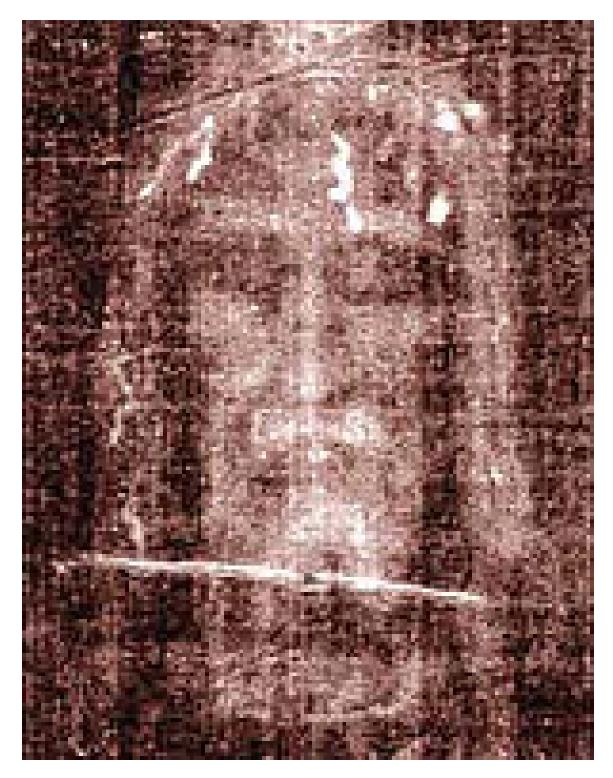
Main article: Shroud of Turin

The Shroud of Turin is the best-known relic of Jesus and one of the most studied artifacts in human history.*[5]

Various tests have been performed on the shroud, yet both believers and skeptics continue to present arguments for and against the validity of the tests. One of the contentious issues is the radiocarbon dating in 1988 which yielded results indicating that the shroud was made during the Middle Ages.*[6] Believers have since presented arguments against the 1988 carbon dating results, ranging from conflicts in the interpretation of the evidence, to samples being taken from a non representative corner, to additional carbon content via fire damage. Heated debate has ensued ever since.*[7]*[8]*[9]*[10]*[11]*[12]

Believers claim that pollen residues on the Shroud of Turin shows strong evidence that it originated in the Jerusalem area before the 8th century.*[13]

Both skeptics and proponents tend to have very entrenched positions on the cause of formation of the shroud image, (at times pitting science versus divine formation) which has made dialogue very difficult. This may prevent the issue from being fully settled to the satisfaction of all sides in the near future.*[14]*[15]

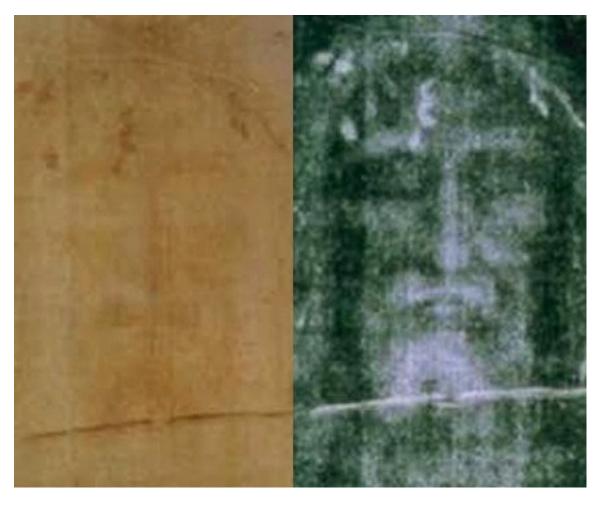


Secondo Pia's 1898 photographic negative of the Shroud of Turin, associated with Holy Face of Jesus devotions.

14.1.2 Sudarium of Oviedo

The Sudarium of Oviedo is a bloodstained cloth, measuring c. 84×53 cm, kept in the Cámara Santa of the Cathedral of San Salvador, Oviedo, Spain.*[16] The Sudarium (Latin for *sweat cloth*) is claimed to be the cloth wrapped around the head of Jesus Christ after he died, as mentioned in the Gospel of John (20:6–7).*[17]

The Sudarium is severely soiled and crumpled, with dark flecks that are symmetrically arranged but form no image, unlike the markings on the Shroud of Turin. However, some of those who accept the Shroud as authentic claim that many of the stains on the Sudarium match those on the head portion of the Shroud, but skeptics dispute this. Believers



A recent photo of the Shroud of Turin face, positive left, negative on the right having been contrast enhanced.

(such as Vatican archivist Msgr Giulio Ricci, who studied them in 1995)*[18] contend that both cloths covered the same man.

14.1.3 Image of Edessa

The Image of Edessa is also known as the Mandylion. Two images claim to be the Mandylion. One is the Holy Face of Genoa at the Church of St. Bartholomew of The Armenians in Genoa, the other is the Holy Face of San Silvestro, kept in the Church of San Silvestro in Capite in Rome up to 1870, and now in the Matilda Chapel of the Vatican Palace.*[19] The theory that the object venerated as the Mandylion from the sixth to the thirteenth centuries was in fact the Shroud of Turin has been the subject of debate.*[20]

14.1.4 Crown of Thorns

Main article: Crown of Thorns

The relics of the Passion presented at Notre-Dame de Paris include a piece of the Cross, which had been kept in Rome and delivered by Saint Helen, the mother of Emperor Constantine, a nail of the Passion and the Holy Crown of Thorns.

Despite numerous studies and historical and scientific research efforts, its authenticity cannot be certified. It has been the object of more than sixteen centuries of fervent Christian prayer.

Saint John tells that, in the night between Maundy Thursday and Good Friday, Roman soldiers mocked Christ and his Sovereignty by placing a thorny crown on his head (John 19:12).



The ark containing the Sudarium of Oviedo.

The crown housed in the Paris cathedral is a circle of canes bundled together and held by gold threads. The thorns were attached to this braided circle, which measures 21 centimetres in diameter. The thorns were divided up over the centuries by the Byzantine emperors and the Kings of France. There are seventy, all of the same type.

The accounts of 4th century pilgrims to Jerusalem allude to the Crown of Thorns and the instruments of the Passion of Christ. In 409, Saint Paulinus of Nola mentions it as being one of the relics kept in the basilica on Mount Zion in Jerusalem. In 570, Anthony the Martyr found it exhibited for veneration in the Basilica of Zion. Around 575, Cassiodorus, in his Exposition on the 75th Psalm, exclaimed, "Jerusalem has the Column, here, there is the Crown of Thorns!" In 870, once again in Jerusalem, Bernard the Monk noted it as well.

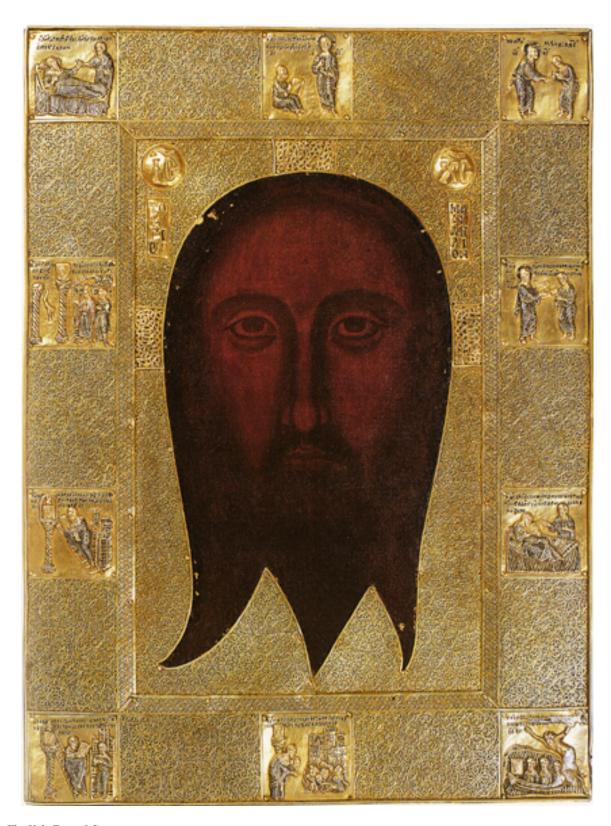
Between the 7th and the 10th centuries, the relics were moved progressively to the Byzantine emperors' chapel in Constantinople, mainly to keep them safe from pillaging, like that suffered by the Holy Sepulchre during the Persian invasions. In 1238, Byzantium was governed by the Latin Emperor Baldwin II of Constantinople. As he was in great financial difficulty, he decided to pawn the relics in a Venetian bank to get credit.

Saint Louis, the king of France, took over and paid back the Venetians. On 10 August 1239, the king, followed by a brilliant procession, welcomed twenty-nine relics in Villeneuve-l'Archevêque. On 19 August 1239, the procession arrived in Paris; the king took off his royal garments. Wearing only a simple tunic and with bare feet, assisted by his brother, took the Crown of Thorns to Notre-Dame de Paris before placing the relics in the palace chapel. He built a reliquary worthy of housing these relics, the Sainte-Chapelle.

During the French revolution, the relics were stored in the National Library. After the Concordat in 1801, they were given back to the archbishop of Paris who placed them in the Cathedral treasury on 10 August 1806. They are still housed there today.

Since then, these relics have been conserved by the canons of the Metropolitan Basilica Chapter, who are in charge of venerations, and guarded by the Knights of the Order of the Holy Sepulchre of Jerusalem.

Napoleon I and Napoleon III each offered reliquaries for the crown of thorns. They are on display at Notre-Dame Cathedral during scheduled religious ceremonies.*[21]



The Holy Face of Genoa.

14.1.5 Veil of Veronica

The Veil of Veronica, which according to legend was used to wipe the sweat from Jesus' brow as he carried the cross is also said to bear the likeness of the face of Christ. Today, several images claim to be the Veil of Veronica.

There is an image kept in Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome which is purported to be the same Veronica as was revered



Veronica holding her veil, Hans Memling, c. 1470

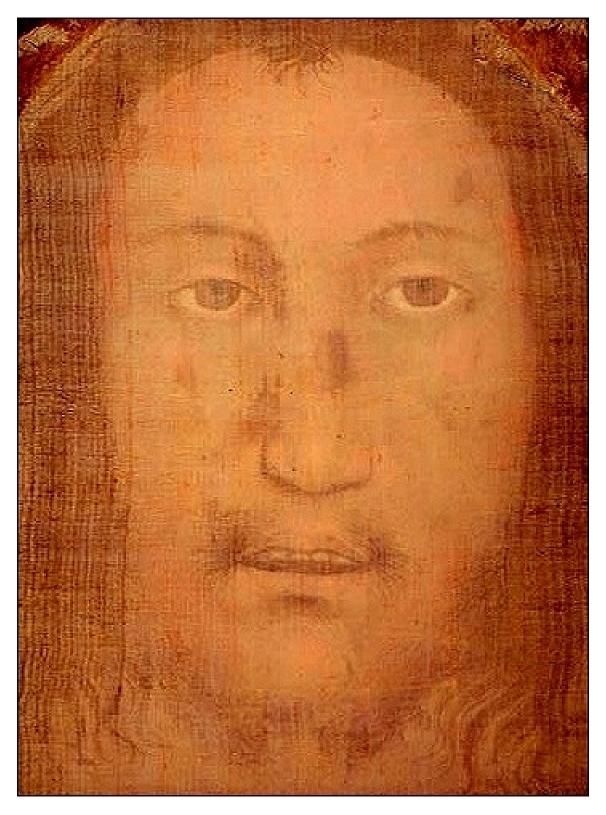
in the Middle Ages. Very few inspections are recorded in modern times and there are no detailed photographs. The most detailed recorded inspection in the 20th century occurred in 1907 when Jesuit art historian Joseph Wilpert was allowed to remove two plates of glass to inspect the image.

The Hofburg Palace in Vienna has a copy of the Veronica, identified by the signature of the secretary of Pope Paul V, during whose reign a series of six meticulous copies of the veil were made in 1617.*[22]

The image at the Monastery of the Holy Face in Alicante, Spain was acquired by Pope Nicholas V from relatives of the Byzantine Emperor in 1453 and was given by a Vatican cardinal to a Spanish priest who took it to Alicante, in

1489.

The Jaén Cathedral in Spain has a copy of the Veronica which probably dates from the 14th century and originates in Siena. It is known as the *Santo Rostro* and was acquired by Bishop Nicholas de Biedma in the 14th century.*[23]



The Manoppello Image.

In 1999, Father Heinnrich Pfeiffer announced at a press conference in Rome that he had found the Veil in a church of the Capuchin monastery, in the small village of Manoppello, Italy, where it had been since 1660. Professor Pfeiffer

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had in fact been promoting this image for many years before.*[24] This theory has since been promoted by the author Paul Badde in his 2010 book *The Face of God*.*[25]

Advocates of the Shroud's authenticity claim that recent research demonstrates that the face of the Manoppello Image corresponds exactly with the face presented on the Shroud of Turin and the blood stains on the Sudarium of Oviedo,*[26] although skeptics dispute this. Also, 3D properties of the Manoppello Image (similar to that claimed for the Shroud, but weaker) have been discovered.*[27]

14.2 Holy Chalice

The Holy Chalice is the chalice or vessel which Jesus used at the Last Supper to serve the wine, as in the Gospel of Matthew (26:27-28) which states: "Drink from it, all of you. This is my blood of the covenant, which is poured out for many for the forgiveness of sins." *[28]

A number of Holy Chalices have been reported and also given rise to the legend of Holy Grail, which is not part of Catholic tradition, but of mythology.*[29] Of the existing chalices, only the Santo Càliz de Valencia (English: Holy Chalice of the Cathodral of Valencia) is recognized as a "historical relic" by the Vatican,*[30] although not as the actual chalice used at the Last Supper.*[31] Although both Pope John Paul II and Pope Benedict XVI have venerated this chalice at the Cathodral of Valencia, neither has formally pronounced it as authentic.*[32]

14.3 The True Cross

In the Christian tradition, the True Cross refers to the actual cross used in the Crucifixion of Jesus. Today, many fragments of wood are claimed as True Cross relics, but it is hard to establish their authenticity. The spread of the story of the fourth century discovery of the True Cross was partly due to its inclusion in 1260 in Jacopo de Voragine's very popular book *The Golden Legend*, which also included other tales such as Saint George and the Dragon.

Tradition and legend attribute the discovery of the True Cross to Saint Helena, mother of Constantine the Great who went to Palestine during the fourth century in search of relics. Eusebius of Caesarea was the only contemporary author to write about Helena's journey in his *Life of Constantine*. But Eusebius did not mention the finding of the True Cross, although he dwelt heavily on the piety of Helena and the finding of the site of the Holy Sepulchre.*[33] Texts that tell (and gradually elaborate) the story of the finding of the True Cross and its identification through a miracle date to the fifth century, and include writings by Socrates Scholasticus, Sozomen and Saint Theodoret.

Pieces of the purported True Cross, including the half of the INRI inscription tablet, are preserved at the ancient basilica Santa Croce in Gerusalemme in Rome. Very small pieces or particles of the True Cross are reportedly preserved in hundreds of other churches in Europe and inside crucifixes. Their authenticity is not accepted universally by those of the Christian faith and the accuracy of the reports surrounding the discovery of the True Cross is questioned by many Christians. The acceptance and belief of that part of the tradition that pertains to the Early Christian Church is generally restricted to the Catholic and Orthodox Churches. The Medieval legends of its provenance differ between Catholic and Orthodox tradition. These churches honour Helena as a saint, as does also the Anglican Communion.

14.4 Other relics

14.4.1 Crucifixion

A large number of other claimed relics of Jesus continue to be displayed throughout the world. A good number of these relics involve the journey of Saint Helena of Constantinople, the mother of Constantine the Great to Palestine in the fourth century to gather relics.

The authenticity of many of these relics is in question. For instance, regarding the Holy Nails brought back by Saint Helena, the Catholic Encyclopedia states that given that the question has long been debated whether Christ was crucified with three or with four nails:*[2]

Very little reliance can be placed upon the authenticity of the thirty or more holy nails which are still venerated, or which have been venerated until recent times, in such treasuries as that of Santa Croce in



Discovery of the True Cross, by Tiepolo, 1745.

Rome, or those of Venice, Aachen, Escurial, Nuremberg, Prague, etc. Probably the majority began by professing to be facsimiles which had touched or contained filings from some other nail whose claim was more ancient.

Similarly, a large number of churches claim to have relics of the Crown of Thorns which was placed upon the head of Jesus by the soldiers prior to his crucifixion.

The Scala Sancta, the stairs from Pontius Pilate's praetorium, ascended by Jesus during his trial were also reportedly brought to Rome by Saint Helena of Constantinople in the 4th century.

The Basilica of the Holy Blood in Bruges, Belgium, claims a specimen of Christ's blood in a phial said to contain a cloth with blood of Jesus Christ, brought to the city by Thierry of Alsace after the 12th century.

Other claimed relics, based on the Crucifixion of Christ include:

- The Holy Coat: The possession of the seamless garment of Christ (Latin: Latin tunica inconsultilis; John 19:23), for which the soldiers cast lots at the Crucifixion, is claimed by the cathedral of Trier, Germany, and by the parish church of Argenteuil, France. The seamless robe of Jesus is kept at the cathedral of Trier. The Argenteuil tradition claims that the garment venerated in that city as the Holy Coat was brought there by Charlemagne.
- The Calvary of crucifixion, a small rock called Golgotha, in the Church of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem.

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Inside the church is a pile of rock about 7 metres (23 ft) long by 3 metres (9.8 ft) wide by 4.8 metres (16 ft), believed to be what is now visible of Calvary.

- The Iron Crown of Lombardy and Bridle of Constantine, said to be made from nails used during the crucifixion.
- The Holy Lance (or Spear of Destiny), the spear of Longinus used to pierce Jesus' side when he was on the cross, to ensure that he had died.
- The Holy Sponge, in Santa Croce in Gerusalemme.
- The Column of the Flagellation, which Jesus was tied to during the Flagellation of Christ, kept in the Basilica
 of Saint Praxedes in Rome.

14.4.2 Bodily relics

Christian teaching generally states that Christ was assumed into heaven corporeally. Therefore the only parts of his body available for veneration are parts he had lost prior to the Ascension. At various points in history, a number of churches in Europe have claimed to possess the Holy Prepuce, Jesus' foreskin from the Circumcision, sometimes at the same time.*[34] A section of the Holy Umbilical Cord believed to remain from the birth of Christ, is currently in the Archbasilica of St. John Lateran.*[35]

14.4.3 Miscellaneous

A number of miscellaneous relics are claimed to exist; there is no proof that any of them are genuine. In many cases, there are contradictory claims of a unique relic existing simultaneously at different locations.

St. Paul's Monastery on Mount Athos claims to have relics of Gifts of the Magi, while Dubrovnik's Cathedral, Croatia, lays claim to the swaddling clothes the baby Jesus wore during the presentation at the Temple.*[36] The knife that was claimed to have been used by Jesus during the Last Supper was also a matter of veneration in the Middle Ages, according to the 12th century *Guide for Pilgrims* to Santiago de Compostela.*[37] According to French traveler Jules-Léonard Belin the knife used by Jesus to slice bread was permanently exhibited in the Logetta (decorated entrance hall) of St Mark's Campanile in Venice.*[38]

14.5 See also

- Blood of Christ
- List of artifacts significant to the Bible
- Jesus in the Christian Bible
- Relics of Muhammad

14.6 Notes

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- [2] Thurston, Herbert (1913). "Holy Nails". Catholic Encyclopedia. New York: Robert Appleton Company.
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- [4] Cruz 2003, p. 200
- [5] « The Shroud of Turin is the single, most studied artifact in human history » statement considered as « widely accepted » in Lloyd A Currie, « The Remarkable Metrological History of Radiocarbon Dating [II] », *J. Res. Natl. Inst. Stand. Technol.* 109, 2004, p. 200 Article.

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- [14] Colin Evans, 2002 A question of evidence ISBN 0-471-44014-0 page 10
- [15] Paul Vignon, 2002 The Shroud of Christ ISBN 1-885395-96-5 page 3
- [16] Michael McDonnell (2007). Lost Treasures of the Bible. ISBN 1-84753-316-7. page 31.
- [17] John 20:6
- [18] Ruffin 1999, p. 47
- [19] Houlden 2003, vol. 2, p. 66
- [20] Wilson 1991
- [21] Notre Dame de Paris Veneration of the Crown
- [22] Wilson 1991, p. 157
- [23] Wilson 1991, p. 94
- [24] Ian Wilson, Holy Faces, Secret Places, page 161
- [25] The Face of God: The Rediscovery of the True Face of Jesus, Igantius Press, Paul badde, 2010.
- [26] http://www.sudariumchristi.com/uk/tomb/compare.htm
- [27] J. Jaworski , G. Fanti 3-D PROCESSING TO EVIDENCE CHARACTERISTICS REPRESENTED IN MANOPPELLO VEIL (article)
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- [31] Griffin 2001, p. 103
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14.9 External links

- The Shroud of Turin Story: A Guide to the Facts
- Possibly the Biggest Radiocarbon Dating Mistake Ever



Yata no Kagami

Yata no Kagami (八咫鏡) is a sacred mirror that is part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan. It is said to be housed in Ise Grand Shrine in Mie Prefecture, Japan, although a lack of public access makes this difficult to verify. The Yata no Kagami represents "wisdom" or "honesty," depending on the source. Its name literally means "The Eight Hand Mirror," a reference to its octagonal shape. Mirrors in ancient Japan represented truth because they merely reflected what was shown, and were a source of much mystique and reverence (being uncommon items). Japanese folklore is rich in stories of life before mirrors were commonplace.

In the Japanese mythology this mirror and the *Yasakani no magatama* were hung from a tree to lure out Amaterasu from a cave. They were given to Amaterasu's grandson, Ninigi-no-Mikoto, when he went to pacify Japan along with the sword Kusanagi. From there, the treasures passed into the hands of the Imperial House of Japan.

In the year 1040 (Chōkyū 1, 9th month), the Sacred Mirror was burned in a fire.*[1] Whether that mirror was irrevocably lost or not, the current government claims that there are three sacred relics, each held at a different Shinto shrine: one is in Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, one in Ise Grand Shrine, and one in Atsuta Shrine in Nagoya.

15.1 See also

• Shinju-kyo

15.2 References

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15.3 External links

• Ise Jingu's page on the Yata no Kagami



Artist's impression of the Imperial Regalia of Japan

Holy Grail

"Grail" and "Grail Quest" redirect here. For other uses, see Grail (disambiguation) and Grail Quest (disambiguation).

For other uses, see Holy Grail (disambiguation).

The **Holy Grail** is a dish, plate, stone, or cup that is part of an important theme of Arthurian literature. A grail, wondrous but not explicitly holy, first appears in *Perceval le Gallois*, an unfinished romance by Chrétien de Troyes:*[1] it is a processional salver used to serve at a feast. Chrétien's story attracted many continuators, translators and interpreters in the later 12th and early 13th centuries, including Wolfram von Eschenbach, who makes the grail a great precious stone that fell from the sky. The Grail legend became interwoven with legends of the Holy Chalice.*[2] The connection with Joseph of Arimathea and with vessels associated with the Last Supper and crucifixion of Jesus, dates from Robert de Boron's *Joseph d'Arimathie* (late 12th century) in which Joseph receives the Grail from an apparition of Jesus and sends it with his followers to Great Britain. Building upon this theme, later writers recounted how Joseph used the Grail to catch Christ's blood while interring him and how he founded a line of guardians to keep it safe in Britain. The legend may combine Christian lore with a Celtic myth of a cauldron endowed with special powers.

16.1 Origins

The word *graal*, as it is earliest spelled, comes from Old French *graal* or *greal*, cognate with Old Provençal *grazal* and Old Catalan *gresal*, meaning "a cup or bowl of earth, wood, or metal" (or other various types of vessels in different Occitan dialects).*[3] The most commonly accepted etymology derives it from Latin *gradalis* or *gradale* via an earlier form, *cratalis*, a derivative of *crater* or *cratus* which was, in turn, borrowed from Greek *krater* ($\kappa \rho \alpha \tau \acute{\eta} \rho$, a large wine-mixing vessel).*[3]*[4]*[5]*[6]*[7] Alternative suggestions include a derivative of *cratis*, a name for a type of woven basket that came to refer to a dish,*[8] or a derivative of Latin *gradus* meaning "by degree', 'by stages', applied to a dish brought to the table in different stages or services during a meal".*[9]

The Grail was considered a bowl or dish when first described by Chrétien de Troyes. Hélinand of Froidmont described a grail as a "wide and deep saucer" (scutella lata et aliquantulum profunda); other authors had their own ideas. Robert de Boron portrayed it as the vessel of the Last Supper. The Welsh romance Peredur had no Grail per se, presenting the hero instead with a platter containing his kinsman's bloody, severed head. In Parzival, Wolfram von Eschenbach, citing the authority of a certain (probably fictional) Kyot the Provençal, claimed the Grail was a stone (called lapis exillis) that fell from Heaven, and had been the sanctuary of the neutral angels who took neither side during Lucifer's rebellion. The authors of the Vulgate Cycle used the Grail as a symbol of divine grace. Galahad, illegitimate son of Lancelot and Elaine, the world's greatest knight and the Grail Bearer at the castle of Corbenic, is destined to achieve the Grail, his spiritual purity making him a greater warrior than even his illustrious father. Galahad and the interpretation of the Grail involving him were picked up in the 15th century by Sir Thomas Malory in Le Morte d'Arthur, and remain popular today.

According to the *Catholic Encyclopedia*, after the cycle of Grail romances was well established, late medieval writers came up with a false etymology for *sangréal*, an alternative name for "Holy Grail." In Old French, *san graal* or *san gréal* means "Holy Grail" and *sang réal* means "royal blood"; later writers played on this pun. Since then, "Sang real" is sometimes employed to lend a medievalising air in referring to the Holy Grail. This connection with royal blood bore fruit in a modern bestseller linking many historical conspiracy theories (see below).

60 CHAPTER 16. HOLY GRAIL



How at the Castle of Corbin a Maiden Bare in the Sangreal and Foretold the Achievements of Galahad: illustration by Arthur Rackham, 1917

16.2 Beginnings in literature



Galahad, Bors, and Percival achieve the Grail. Tapestry woven by Morris & Co.. Wool and silk on cotton warp, Birmingham Museum and Art Gallery.

16.2.1 Chrétien de Troyes

The Grail is first featured in *Perceval, le Conte du Graal (The Story of the Grail)* by Chrétien de Troyes, who claims he was working from a source book given to him by his patron, Count Philip of Flanders.*[10] In this incomplete poem, dated sometime between 1180 and 1191, the object has not yet acquired the implications of holiness it would have in later works. While dining in the magical abode of the Fisher King, Perceval witnesses a wondrous procession in which youths carry magnificent objects from one chamber to another, passing before him at each course of the meal. First comes a young man carrying a bleeding lance, then two boys carrying candelabras. Finally, a beautiful young girl emerges bearing an elaborately decorated *graal*, or "grail."

Chrétien refers to this object not as "The Grail" but as "a grail" (*un graal*), showing the word was used, in its earliest literary context, as a common noun. For Chrétien a grail was a wide, somewhat deep dish or bowl, interesting because it contained not a pike, salmon, or lamprey, as the audience may have expected for such a container, but a single Mass wafer which provided sustenance for the Fisher King's crippled father. Perceval, who had been warned against talking too much, remains silent through all of this, and wakes up the next morning alone. He later learns that if he had asked the appropriate questions about what he saw, he would have healed his maimed host, much to his honour. The story of the Wounded King's mystical fasting is not unique; several saints were said to have lived without food besides communion, for instance Saint Catherine of Genoa. This may imply that Chrétien intended the Mass wafer to be the significant part of the ritual, and the Grail to be a mere prop.

16.2.2 Robert de Boron

Though Chrétien's account is the earliest and most influential of all Grail texts, it was in the work of Robert de Boron that the Grail truly became the "Holy Grail" and assumed the form most familiar to modern readers. In his verse romance *Joseph d' Arimathie*, composed between 1191 and 1202, Robert tells the story of Joseph of Arimathea acquiring the chalice of the Last Supper to collect Christ's blood upon his removal from the cross. Joseph is thrown in prison, where Christ visits him and explains the mysteries of the blessed cup. Upon his release Joseph gathers his in-laws and other followers and travels to the west, and founds a dynasty of Grail keepers that eventually includes Perceval.

16.2.3 Other early literature

After this point, Grail literature divides into two classes. The first concerns King Arthur's knights visiting the Grail castle or questing after the object. The second concerns the Grail's history in the time of Joseph of Arimathea.

The nine most important works from the first group are:

- The *Perceval* of Chrétien de Troyes.
- Four continuations of Chrétien's poem, by authors of differing vision and talent, designed to bring the story to a close.

- The German *Parzival* by Wolfram von Eschenbach, which adapted at least the holiness of Robert's Grail into the framework of Chrétien's story.
- The Didot *Perceval*, named after the manuscript's former owner, and purportedly a prosification of Robert de Boron's sequel to *Joseph d'Arimathie*.
- The Welsh romance *Peredur*, generally included in the *Mabinogion*, likely at least indirectly founded on Chrétien's poem but including very striking differences from it, preserving as it does elements of pre-Christian traditions such as the Celtic cult of the head.
- Perlesvaus, called the "least canonical" Grail romance because of its very different character.
- The German Diu Crône (The Crown), in which Gawain, rather than Perceval, achieves the Grail.
- The Lancelot section of the vast Vulgate Cycle, which introduces the new Grail hero, Galahad.
- The Queste del Saint Graal, another part of the Vulgate Cycle, concerning the adventures of Galahad and his
 achievement of the Grail.

Of the second class there are:

- Robert de Boron's Joseph d'Arimathie,
- The *Estoire del Saint Graal*, the first part of the Vulgate Cycle (but written after *Lancelot* and the *Queste*), based on Robert's tale but expanding it greatly with many new details.
- Verses by Rigaut de Barbezieux, a late 12th or early 13th century*[11] Provençal troubador, where mention is made of Perceval, the lance, and the Grail ("Like Perceval when he lived, who stood amazed in contemplation, so that he was quite unable to ask what purpose the lance and grail served" "Attressi con Persavaus el temps que vivia, que s'esbait d'esgarder tant qu'anc non saup demandar de que servia la lansa ni-l grazaus"*[12]).

16.3 Early forms

There are two veins of thought concerning the Grail's origin. The first, championed by Roger Sherman Loomis, Alfred Nutt, and Jessie Weston, holds that it derived from early Celtic myth and folklore. Loomis traced a number of parallels between Medieval Welsh literature and Irish material and the Grail romances, including similarities between the *Mabinogion*'s Bran the Blessed and the Arthurian Fisher King, and between Bran's life-restoring cauldron and the Grail. On the other hand, some scholars believe the Grail began as a purely Christian symbol. For example, Joseph Goering of the University of Toronto has identified sources for Grail imagery in 12th century wall paintings from churches in the Catalan Pyrenees (now mostly removed to the Museu Nacional d'Art de Catalunya, Barcelona), which present unique iconic images of the Virgin Mary holding a bowl that radiates tongues of fire, images that predate the first literary account by Chrétien de Troyes. Goering argues that they were the original inspiration for the Grail legend.*[13]*[14]

Another recent theory holds that the earliest stories that cast the Grail in a Christian light were meant to promote the Roman Catholic sacrament of the Holy Communion. Although the practice of Holy Communion was first alluded to in the Christian Bible and defined by theologians in the 1st centuries AD, it was around the time of the appearance of the first Christianised Grail literature that the Roman church was beginning to add more ceremony and mysticism around this particular sacrament. Thus, the first Grail stories may have been celebrations of a renewal in this traditional sacrament. [15] This theory has some basis in the fact that the Grail legends are a phenomenon of the Western church.

In several articles, Daniel Scavone, professor Emeritus of history at the University of Southern Indiana, puts forward a hypothesis which identifies the Shroud of Turin as the real object that inspires the romances of the Holy Grail.*[16]

Most scholars today accept that both Christian and Celtic traditions contributed to the legend's development, though many of the early Celtic-based arguments are largely discredited (Loomis himself came to reject much of Weston and Nutt's work). The general view is that the central theme of the Grail is Christian, even when not explicitly religious, but that much of the setting and imagery of the early romances is drawn from Celtic material.

16.4. LATER LEGEND 63

16.4 Later legend

Belief in the Grail and interest in its potential whereabouts has never ceased. Ownership has been attributed to various groups (including the Knights Templar, probably because they were at the peak of their influence around the time that Grail stories started circulating in the 12th and 13th centuries).

There are cups claimed to be the Grail in several churches, for instance in O Cebreiro church in Galicia (Spain) or in the Saint Mary of Valencia Cathedral, which contains an artifact, the Valencia Chalice, supposedly taken by Saint Peter to Rome in the 1st century, and then to Huesca in Spain by Saint Lawrence in the 3rd century. According to legend, the monastery of San Juan de la Peña, located at the south-west of Jaca, in the province of Huesca, Spain, protected the chalice of the Last Supper from the Islamic invaders of the Iberian Peninsula. Antonio Beltrán says the artifact is a 1st-century Middle Eastern stone vessel, possibly from Antioch, Syria (now Turkey); its history can be traced to the 11th century, and it now rests atop an ornate stem and base, made in the Medieval era of alabaster, gold, and gemstones. It was the official papal chalice for many popes, and has been used by many others, most recently by Pope Benedict XVI, on July 9, 2006.*[17] The emerald chalice at Genoa,*[18] which was obtained during the Crusades at Caesarea Maritima at great cost, has been less championed as the Holy Grail since an accident on the road, while it was being returned from Paris after the fall of Napoleon, revealed that the emerald was green glass.

In Wolfram von Eschenbach's telling, the Grail was kept safe at the castle of Munsalvaesche (*mons salvationis*), entrusted to Titurel, the first Grail King. Some, not least the Benedictine monks of Montserrat, have identified the castle with the real sanctuary of Montserrat in Catalonia, Spain. Other stories claim that the Grail is buried beneath Rosslyn Chapel or lies deep in the spring at Glastonbury Tor. Still other stories claim that a secret line of hereditary protectors keep the Grail, or that it was hidden by the Templars in Oak Island, Nova Scotia's famous "Money Pit", while local folklore in Accokeek, Maryland says that it was brought to the town by a closeted priest aboard Captain John Smith's ship. Turn of the century accounts state that Irish partisans of the Clan Dhuir (O'Dwyer, Dwyer) transported the Grail to the United States during the 19th Century and the Grail was kept by their descendants in secrecy in a small abbey in the upper-Northwest (now believed to be Southern Minnesota).*[19]

In March 2014, Margarita Torres and José Ortega del Río presented in Leon a co-written book, "Los Reyes del Grial" (*The Kings of the Grail*) where they describe how a Spanish Arabist and Historian, Doctor Gustavo Turienzo, found two medieval Egyptian documents in al Azhar (Cairo). Those documents, written in Arabic, suggest that the Holy Grail was taken to the city of Leon in the 11th century.*[20] They claim the Chalice of Doña Urraca at the Basilica of San Isidoro was very early on believed to be the Holy Grail.*[21]

16.5 Modern interpretations

The story of the Grail and of the quest to find it became increasingly popular in the 19th century, referred to in literature such as Alfred Tennyson's Arthurian cycle the *Idylls of the King*. A sexualised interpretation of the grail, now identified with female genitals, appeared in 1870 in Hargrave Jennings book The Rosicrucians, their Rites and Mysteries.*[22] The combination of hushed reverence, chromatic harmonies and sexualized imagery in Richard Wagner's late opera Parsifal, premiered in 1882, developed this theme, associating the grail – now periodically producing blood – directly with female fertility.*[23] The high seriousness of the subject was also epitomized in Dante Gabriel Rossetti's painting (*illustrated*), in which a woman modelled by Jane Morris holds the Grail with one hand, while adopting a gesture of blessing with the other. A major mural series depicting the Quest for the Holy Grail was done by the artist Edwin Austin Abbey during the first decade of the 20th century for the Boston Public Library. Other artists, including George Frederic Watts and William Dyce also portrayed grail subjects.

The Grail later appeared in movies; it debuted in a silent *Parsifal*. In *The Light of Faith* (1922), Lon Chaney attempted to steal it. *The Silver Chalice*, a novel about the Grail by Thomas B. Costain was made into a 1954 movie. *Lancelot du Lac* (1974) was made by Robert Bresson. *Monty Python and the Holy Grail* (1975) (adapted in 2004 as the stage production *Spamalot*) was a comedic adaptation. John Boorman, in his film *Excalibur*, attempted to restore a more traditional heroic representation of an Arthurian tale, in which the Grail is revealed as a mystical means to revitalise Arthur and the barren land to which his depressive sickness is connected. *Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade* and *The Fisher King* are more recent adoptions.

The Grail has been used as a theme in fantasy, historical fiction and science fiction; a quest for the Grail appears in Bernard Cornwell's series of books *The Grail Quest*, set during The Hundred Years War. Michael Moorcock's fantasy novel *The War Hound and the World's Pain* depicts a supernatural Grail quest set in the era of the Thirty Years' War, and science fiction has taken the Quest into interstellar space, figuratively in Samuel R. Delany's 1968

novel *Nova*, and literally on the television shows *Babylon 5* and *Stargate SG-1* (as the "Sangraal"). Marion Zimmer Bradley's *The Mists of Avalon* has the grail as one of four objects symbolizing the four Elements: the Grail itself (water), the sword Excalibur (fire), a dish (earth), and a spear or wand (air). The Grail features heavily in the novels of Peter David's *Knight* trilogy, which depict King Arthur reappearing in modern-day New York City, in particular the second and third novels, *One Knight Only* and *Fall of Knight*. The grail is central in many modern Arthurian works, including Charles Williams's novel *War in Heaven* and his two collections of poems about Taliessin, *Taliessin Through Logres* and *Region of the Summer Stars*, and in feminist author Rosalind Miles' *Child of the Holy Grail*. The Grail also features heavily in Umberto Eco's 2000 novel *Baudolino*. In *Fate/stay night*, a visual novel by Type-Moon, as well as its succeeding adaptations, the Holy Grail is a prize in what is known as the Holy Grail War, a battle among magi in the series in order to use the Grail's power of granting one wish to the victor.

The Grail has also been treated in works of non-fiction, which generally seek to interpret its meaning in novel ways. Such a tack was taken by psychologists Emma Jung and Marie-Louise von Franz, who used analytical psychology to interpret the Grail as a series of symbols in their book *The Grail Legend*.*[24] This type of interpretation had previously been used, in less detail, by Carl Jung, and was later invoked by Joseph Campbell.*[24]

Other works attempt to connect the Grail to conspiracy theories and esoteric traditions. In *The Sign and the Seal*, Graham Hancock asserts that the Grail story is a coded description of the Ark of the Covenant itself.*[25] For the authors of *Holy Blood*, *Holy Grail*, who assert that their research ultimately reveals that Jesus may not have died on the cross, but lived to wed Mary Magdalene and father children whose Merovingian lineage continues today, the Grail is a mere sideshow: they say it is a reference to Mary Magdalene as the receptacle of Jesus' bloodline.*[26]*[27]

Such works have been the inspiration for a number of popular modern fiction novels. The best known is Dan Brown's bestselling novel *The Da Vinci Code*, which, like *Holy Blood*, *Holy Grail*, is based on the idea that the real Grail is not a cup but the womb and later the earthly remains of Mary Magdalene (again cast as Jesus' wife), plus a set of ancient documents claimed to tell the true story of Jesus, his teachings and descendants. In Brown's novel, it is hinted that Jesus was merely a mortal man with strong ideals, and that the Grail was long buried beneath Rosslyn Chapel in Scotland, but that in recent decades its guardians had it relocated to a secret chamber embedded in the floor beneath the Inverted Pyramid in the entrance of the Louvre Museum. The latter location, like Rosslyn Chapel, has never been mentioned in traditional Grail lore.

16.6 See also

- Cornucopia (mythical vessels with magical powers)
- Cup of Jamshid
- Chalice of Doña Urraca
- Holy Chalice
- Holyrood (cross)
- Holy Prepuce
- Holy Sponge
- Mythological objects (list)
- Nail (relic)
- Nanteos Cup
- Relic
- Relics attributed to Jesus
- Sampo
- · Sandals of Jesus Christ
- Shroud of Turin
- Titulus Crucis

16.7. REFERENCES 65

- Tree of Jesse
- True cross

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- [22] Writing of the Order of the Garter ceremonies Jennings writes on page 323:- The whole refers to King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table; set round as sentinels ('in lodge') of the Sangreal, or Holy Graal--the 'Sacrifice Mysterious', or 'Eucharist'. But how is all this magic and sacred in the estimate of the Rosicrucians?' an inquirer will very naturally ask. The answer to all this is very, ample and satisfactory; but particulars must be left to the sagacity of the querist himself, because propriety does not admit of explanation. Suffice it to say, that it is one of the most curious and wonderful subjects which has occupied the attention of antiquaries. That archaeological puzzle, the 'Round Table of King Arthur', is a perfect display of this whole subject of the origin of the 'Garter'; it springs directly from it, being the same object as that enclosed by the mythic garter, 'garder', or 'girther.'
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16.8 External links

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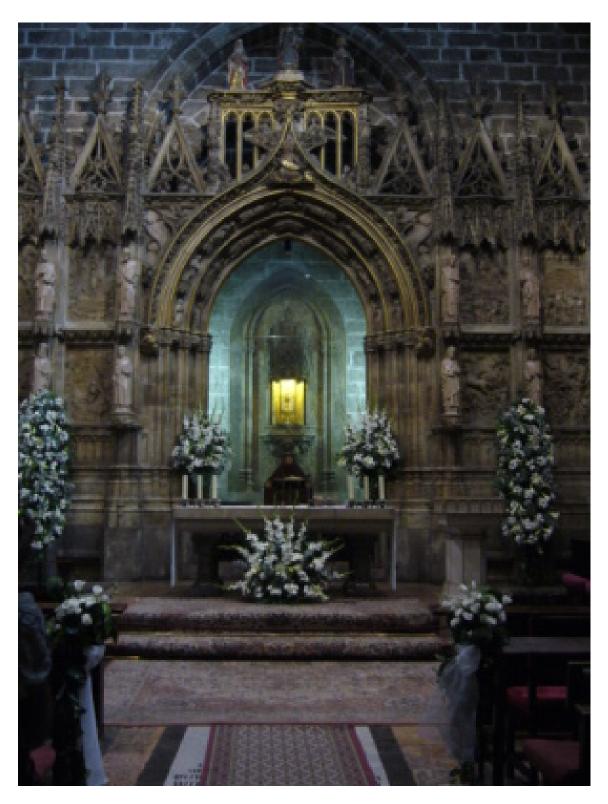
- Holy Grail on *In Our Time* at the BBC. (listen now)
- The Holy Grail at the Camelot Project
- The Holy Grail at the Catholic Encyclopedia
- The Holy Grail today in Valencia Cathedral
- (French) XVth century Old French Estoire del saint Graal manuscript BNF fr. 113 Bibliothèque Nationale de France, selection of illuminated folios, Modern French Translation, Commentaries.

16.8. EXTERNAL LINKS 67



Chalice of Doña Urraca in Leon, Spain.

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One of the supposed Holy Grails in Valencia, Spain

16.8. EXTERNAL LINKS 69



The Damsel of the Sanct Grael by Dante Gabriel Rossetti

Agimat

Agimat or bertud or anting-anting, is a Filipino word for "amulet" or "charm".*[1] Anting-anting is also a Filipino system of magic and sorcery with special use of the above mentioned talismans, amulets, and charms. It is part of a wider South-East Asian tradition of tribal jewelry, as "gantung" (meaning "hanging") in Indonesian/Malay and "anting-anting" (meaning "ear pendant") in Javanese.

17.1 Types of Agimat

In the Philippine occult tradition, there is usually a corresponding *agimat* to deal with in a particular area in a person's life. The most frequent types of *agimat* are used for removing hexes and exorcism of evil spirits. An *agimat* also called a *gayuma* serves as a love charm which makes the owner more attractive to the opposite sex.*[2] Although stereotyped as a cross, a flat, round or triangular golden pendant accompanying a necklace or a necklace-like item, it is also depicted as an enchanted stone that came from the sky or a fang left by a lightning strike (*pangil ng kidlat*) or even a drop of liquid from the heart of a banana tree at midnight (*mutya*). In relation to the latter, it is usually ingested. An *agimat* is usually accompanied by a small book of magic incantations which must be read during Good Friday or a certain special date to attain the amulet's full power and benefit. An *agimat* could also be in the form of a clothing with magic words inscribed on it, or even in the form of edible enchanted mud (*putik* in Tagalog)*[3]

Other methods of obtaining an *agimat* is by getting the liquid that is drained from an exhumed body of an unbaptized child or aborted fetus or offering food and drinks to the spirits in a cemetery during midnight of Holy Wednesday or Holy Thursday.*[4] Most of the amulets bear Latin inscriptions into it. Like those in Quiapo district in Manila, most of the *agimat* merchants are near churches (like in its courtyard or in the marketplace just nearby). Filipino freedom fighters also wore *anting-anting* to battle against the Spaniards and the Americans. Filipino hero Macario Sakay wore a vest that has religious images and Latin phrases to protect him from bullets.*[5] Former Philippine-President Ferdinand Marcos, was given an *anting-anting* by Gregorio Aglipay that could supposedly make Marcos invisible.*[6] Marcos said that the *agimat* is a sliver of wood that was inserted into his back before the Bataan campaign on 1942.*[7]

Earliest reports of *anting-anting* are from the records of Spanish priests in the early colonial period. Pardo de Tavera defines the *anting-anting* as "an amulet, of super natural power, that saves lives." With the Christianization of the Philippines, *anting-anting* appropriated the forms of the new religion, and incorporated as well the esoteric symbolisms of Freemasonry. An Islamic version of *anting-anting* exists in the Southern Muslim islands.*[3] In Filipino films, the wearer of the *agimat* gains superhuman strength, invisibility, heightened senses, self-healing, and elemental powers. With it, the person can also be able to shoot or fire lightning via hands, or generate electricity throughout one's body. The person can also perform telekinesis, stop a live bullet, can have premonitions, invisibility, flight, morphing abilities, camouflage abilities like a chameleon, can have extreme good luck, possess invincibility, or perform miracle curative powers. In his Filipino films, the actor Ramon Revilla, Sr., as *Nardong Putik*, was depicted to have protection from bullets and slash wounds, provided he eats a certain special mud.*[8]

17.2. REFERENCES 71

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Kaustubha

Kaustubh (Sanskrit कौस्तुभः) is a divine jewel or "Mani", which is in the possession of Lord Vishnu who lives in the Ksheer Sagar - "the ocean of milk".

Koustubh Mani== Mythology ==

In Hindu Mythology the Devas and Asuras performed the "Churning of the Ocean of Milk" (Samudra manthan'), in order to get Amrita (Devanagari - अमृत), one of the fourteen treasure jewels (Ratna) that emerged from the ocean. The fourth *Ratna* that emerged is known as **Kaustubh**. It represents pure consciousness shining in all its luminous manifestations. It was said by Lord Shiva that nobody in the universe except Lord Vishnu could handle the brilliance and magnificence of this "Mani", since it could corrupt the bearer by infusing in him or her a greed to carry it forever. In the neck of *Lord Vithoba* [2020] green color pearl in Pandharpur the Kaustubh Mani is their.

18.1 Disambiguation

- Kaustubham is the jewel.
- Kaustubha is name of main wearing that Lord Vishnu i.e Vithoba



KoustubhMani

18.1. DISAMBIGUATION 73



Book of Thoth

This article is about several ancient Egyptian books. For the book by Aleister Crowley, see The Book of Thoth (Crowley).

Book of Thoth is a name given to many ancient Egyptian texts supposed to have been written by Thoth, the Egyptian god of writing and knowledge. They include a text that is known and has been translated, many texts that were claimed to exist by ancient authors, and a magical book that appears in an Egyptian work of fiction.

19.1 Texts that are known or claimed to exist

The Egyptians stored many texts, on a wide range of subjects, in "Houses of Life", the libraries contained within temple complexes. As Thoth was the god of knowledge, many of these texts were claimed to be his work.*[1] The Egyptian historian Manetho claimed that Thoth wrote 36,525 books.*[2]

The church father Clement of Alexandria, in the sixth book of his work *Stromata*, mentions forty-two books used by Egyptian priests that he says contain "the whole philosophy of the Egyptians". All these books, according to Clement, were written by Hermes (the Greek name for Thoth). Among the subjects they cover are hymns, rituals, temple construction, astrology, geography, and medicine.*[3]

The Egyptologists Richard Lewis Jasnow and Karl-Theodor Zauzich have dubbed a long Egyptian text from the Ptolemaic period "the Book of Thoth". This Demotic text, known from more than forty fragmentary copies, consists of a dialogue between a person called "The-one-who-loves-knowledge" and a figure that Jasnow and Zauzich identify as Thoth. The topics of their conversation include the work of scribes, various aspects of the gods and their sacred animals, and the Duat, the realm of the dead.*[4]

19.2 Fictional book

The fictional Book of Thoth appears in an ancient Egyptian story from the Ptolemaic period. The book, written by Thoth, is said to contain two spells, one of which allows the reader to understand the speech of animals, and one of which allows the reader to perceive the gods themselves.*[5]

According to the story, the book was originally hidden at the bottom of the Nile near Coptos, where it was locked inside a series of boxes guarded by serpents. The Egyptian prince Neferkaptah fought the serpents and retrieved the book, but in punishment for his theft from Thoth, the gods killed his wife Ahwere and son Merib. Neferkaptah committed suicide and was entombed along with the book. Generations later, the story's protagonist, Setne Khamwas (a character based on the historical prince Khaemwaset), steals the book from Neferkaptah's tomb despite opposition from Neferkaptah's ghost. Setne then meets a beautiful woman who seduces him into killing his children and humiliating himself in front of the pharaoh. He discovers that this episode was an illusion created by Neferkaptah, and in fear of further retribution, Setne returns the book to Neferkaptah's tomb. At Neferkaptah's request, Setne also finds the bodies of Neferkaptah's wife and son and buries them in Neferkaptah's tomb, which is then sealed.* [6]

The story reflects the Egyptian belief that the gods' knowledge is not meant for humans to possess.*[7]

19.3 In popular culture

- The Book of Thoth is mentioned in *The Rosetta Key*, a novel by William Dietrich.
- The Book of Thoth plays a major role in the 1972 novel Mumbo Jumbo by Ishmael Reed.
- The book of Thoth appears in Rick Riordan's *The Serpent's Shadow* book, where it is used by Carter and Sadie Kane to banish Apophis from the world.
- The Book of Thoth is used by the demon Astaroth in the series The Tapestry to banish modern technology and cities.
- Book of Thoth is a very powerful and expensive magical item purchasable in the Hi-Rez Studios video game SMITE.

The Book of Thoth appears in Zora Neale Hurston's novel *Moses, Man of the Mountain*, a story in which Hurston's Moses, of ambiguous racial identity, derives power not only from the Midianite god, Jehovah, but also from this Egyptian book of power, produced by the Egyptian god of writing, Thoth.

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19.5 See also

- Etteilla, who originally described tarot cards as pages from The Book of Thoth
- Emerald Tablets of Thoth

19.6 References

- [1] Fowden 1993, p. 57
- [2] Jasnow and Zauzich 2005, p. 2
- [3] Fowden 1993, pp. 58-59
- [4] Jasnow and Zauzich 2005, pp. 2-9, 72-73
- [5] Lichtheim 2006, pp. 125-128
- [6] Lichtheim 2006, pp. 125, 129-136
- [7] Lichtheim 2006, p. 126

Jade Books in Heaven

Jade Books are described (in several scriptures of the Daoist canon) as existent primordially in the various divine Heavens -- these Jade Books are variously said to be instrumental in creating and maintaining the divine structure of the universe, or as regulating national or personal destiny.

- In the Vacuous Cavern primordium, before the separation of heaven-and-earth, there existed, in the primaeval darkness, the "5-Ancients Jade Chapters".*[1] The titles of these are:
- 1. Spirit-generating perfection-treasuring stanzas of the Cavern of Profundity
- 2. Heaven-penetrating Southern Clouds Treasure Numinous Writ
- 3. Numinous book of the Nine Heavens of Cavernous Moisture of the Treasure Kalpa
- 4. Subtle chapter of the Bright Cavern of Golden Perfection
- 5. Treasured Bright writ of the perfection-generating Primordial Spirit
- In Highest Clarity heaven are the "Jade Tablets of the Wisdom Manuscript": parts of these reveal the inner names of the 10,000 spirits.*[2] (Compare the esoteric Shin-gon list of 10,000 Buddha-s.)
- In the Azure palace in Highest Clarity heaven are jade tablets registering the names and the nomenclatures of those adepts who are destined to ascend to the asterisms in broad daylight.*[3]

20.1 Heavenly books composed of other semi-precious stones

In Sumerian lore, "(Nisaba) continually gets advice from a tablet of lapis lazuli. ... Nisaba consults a lapis tablet for advice about the 'star-chart' (mul-an) The subject in our text is also consulting the star chart from a tablet made of a precious stone (giš-nu11-gal)".*[4] This subject is Pú-ta ('Foundling'), the demonic scribe.*[5]

In Muslim mystical lore, the archangel 'Israf'il is owner of a "jewelled tablet of fate" .*[6] "The Tablet of Destiny was made out of an immense white pearl, and it has two leaves like those of a door. There are learned men who assert that these leaves are formed out of two red rubies" .*[7] (Possibly a reference to mercury produced by cinnabar.)

In Hellenistic*[8] lore, there is the Emerald Tablet of Hermes Tris-megistos (Hermes 'Thrice-Greatest').

The Akashic records in the modern Western philosophies of Edgar Cayce are a similar concept.

20.2 Notes

- [1] Raz 2004, p. 393
- [2] Eichman 1999, p. 269

20.3. BIBLIOGRAPHY 77

- [3] Eichman 1999, p. 323
- [4] Dijk & Geller, p. 62
- [5] Dijk & Geller, p. 61
- [6] R. O. Winstedt: Shaman Saiva and Sufi. Constable & Co. Ltd., London, 1925. p. 30 -- http://www.sacred-texts.com/sha/sss/sss04.htm (e)
- [7] J. E. Hanauer: Folk-lore of the Holy Land: Moslem, Christian and Jewish. 1907. p. 3 http://www.sacred-texts.com/asia/flhl/flhl04.htm
- [8] http://www.sofiatopia.org/equiaeon/emerald.htm#1.4a

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Sibylline Books

The *Sibylline Books* (Latin: *Libri Sibyllini*) were a collection of oracular utterances, set out in Greek hexameters, that according to tradition were purchased from a sibyl by the last king of Rome, Tarquinius Superbus, and were consulted at momentous crises through the history of the Republic and the Empire. Only fragments have survived, the rest being lost or deliberately destroyed.

The *Sibylline Books* should not be confused with the so-called *Sibylline Oracles*, twelve books of prophecies thought to be of Judaeo-Christian origin.

21.1 History

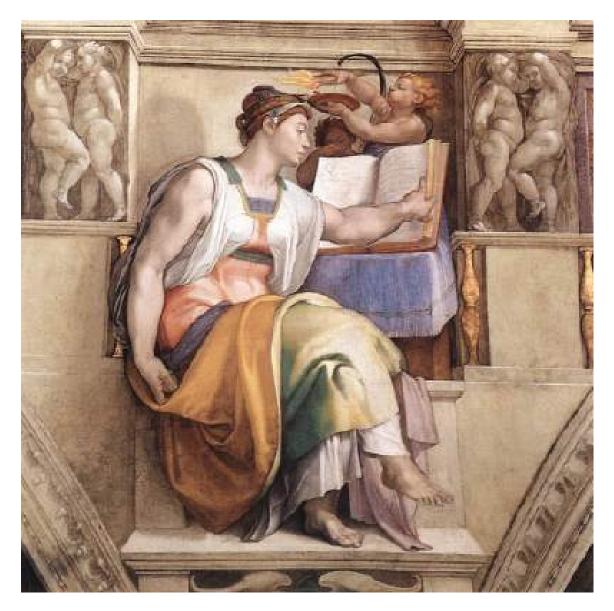
According to the Roman tradition, the oldest collection of Sibylline books appears to have been made about the time of Solon and Cyrus at Gergis on Mount Ida in the Troad; it was attributed to the Hellespontine Sibyl and was preserved in the temple of Apollo at Gergis. From Gergis the collection passed to Erythrae, where it became famous as the oracles of the Erythraean Sibyl. It would appear to have been this very collection that found its way to Cumae (see the Cumaean Sibyl) and from Cumae to Rome.

The story of the acquisition of the Sibylline Books by Tarquinius is one of the famous legendary elements of Roman history. The Cumaean Sibyl offered to Tarquinius nine books of these prophecies; and as the king declined to purchase them, owing to the exorbitant price she demanded, she burned three and offered the remaining six to Tarquinius at the same stiff price, which he again refused, whereupon she burned three more and repeated her offer. Tarquinius then relented and purchased the last three at the full original price and had them preserved in a vault beneath the Capitoline temple of Jupiter. The story is alluded to in Varro's lost books quoted in Lactantius *Institutiones Divinae* (I: 6) and by Origen.

The Roman Senate kept tight control over the Sibylline Books;*[1] Sibylline Books were entrusted to the care of two patricians; after 367 BC ten custodians were appointed, five patricians and five plebeians, who were called the decemviri sacris faciundis; subsequently (probably in the time of Sulla) their number was increased to fifteen, the quindecimviri sacris faciundis. They were usually ex-consuls or ex-praetors. They held office for life, and were exempt from all other public duties. They had the responsibility of keeping the books in safety and secrecy. These officials, at the command of the Senate, consulted the Sibylline Books in order to discover not exact predictions of definite future events in the form of prophecy but the religious observances necessary to avert extraordinary calamities and to expiate ominous prodigies (comets and earthquakes, showers of stones, plague, and the like). It was only the rites of expiation prescribed by the Sibylline Books, according to the interpretation of the oracle that were communicated to the public, and not the oracles themselves, which left ample opportunity for abuses.

In particular, the keepers of the *Sibylline Books* had the superintendence of the worship of Apollo, of the "Great Mother" Cybele or Magna Mater, and of Ceres, which had been introduced upon recommendations as interpreted from the *Sibylline Books*. The Sibylline Books motivated the construction of eight temples in ancient Rome, aside from those cults that have been interpreted as mediated by the Sibylline Books simply by the Greek nature of the deity.*[2] Thus, one important effect of the *Sibylline Books* was their influence on applying Greek cult practice and Greek conceptions of deities to indigenous Roman religion, which was already indirectly influenced through Etruscan religion. As the *Sibylline Books* had been collected in Anatolia, in the neighborhood of Troy, they recognized the gods and goddesses and the rites observed there and helped introduce them into Roman state worship, a syncretic

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Michelangelo's rendering of the Erythraean Sibyl

amalgamation of national deities with the corresponding deities of Greece, and a general modification of the Roman religion.

Since they were written in hexameter verse and in Greek, the college of curators was always assisted by two Greek interpreters. The books were kept in the Temple of Jupiter on the Capitol, and, when the temple burned in 83 BC, they were lost. The Roman Senate sent envoys in 76 BC to replace them with a collection of similar oracular sayings, in particular collected from Ilium, Erythrae, Samos, Sicily, and Africa.*[3] This new Sibylline collection was deposited in the restored temple, together with similar sayings of native origin, e.g. those of the Sibyl at Tibur (the 'Tiburtine Sibyl') of the brothers Marcius, and others, which had been circulating in private hands but which were called in, to be delivered to the Urban Praetor, private ownership of such works being declared illicit, and to be evaluated by the Quindecemviri, who then sorted them, retaining only those that appeared true to them.*[4]

From the Capitol they were transferred by Augustus as *pontifex maximus* in 12 BC, to the temple of *Apollo Patrous* on the Palatine, after they had been examined and copied; there they remained until about AD 405. According to the poet Rutilius Claudius Namatianus, the general Flavius Stilicho (died AD 408) burned them, as they were being used to attack his government.

Some genuine Sibylline verses are preserved in the *Book of Marvels* or *Memorabilia* of Phlegon of Tralles (2nd century AD). These represent an oracle, or a combination of two oracles, of seventy hexameters in all. They report the birth of an androgyne, and prescribe a long list of rituals and offerings to the gods.

21.1.1 Relationship with the "Sibylline Oracles"

The Sibylline Oracles were quoted by the Roman-Jewish historian Josephus (late 1st century) as well as by numerous Christian writers of the second century, including Athenagoras of Athens who, in a letter addressed to Marcus Aurelius in ca. AD 176, quoted verbatim a section of the extant Oracles, in the midst of a lengthy series of other classical and pagan references such as Homer and Hesiod, stating several times that all these works should already be familiar to the Roman Emperor. Copies of the actual Sibylline Books (as reconstituted in 76 BC) were still in the Roman Temple at this time. The Oracles are nevertheless thought by modern scholars to be anonymous compilations that assumed their final form in the fifth century, after the Sibylline Books perished. They are a miscellaneous collection of Jewish and Christian portents of future disasters, that may illustrate the confusions about sibyls that were accumulating among Christians of Late Antiquity.*[5]

21.2 Consultations of the Books cited in history

An incomplete list of consultations of the Sibylline Books recorded by historians:

- 399 BC: The books were consulted following a pestilence, resulting in the institution of the *lectisternium* ceremony. (Livy 5,13)
- 348 BC: A plague struck Rome after a brief skirmish with the Gauls and Greeks. Another lectisternium was ordered. (Livy 7,27)
- 345 BC: The books were consulted when a "shower of stones rained down and darkness filled the sky during daylight". Publius Valerius Publicola was appointed dictator to arrange a public holiday for religious observances. (Livy 7, 28)
- 295 BC: They were consulted again following a pestilence, and reports that large numbers of Appius Claudius' army had been struck by lightning. A Temple was built to Venus near the *Circus Maximus*. (Livy 10,31)
- 293 BC: After yet another plague, the books were consulted, with the prescription being 'that Aesculapius must be brought to Rome from Epidaurus'; however, the Senate, being preoccupied with the Samnite wars, took no steps beyond performing one day of public prayers to Aesculapius. (Livy 10,47)
- 240/238 BC: The Ludi Florales, or "Flower Games", were instituted after consulting the books.
- 216 BC: When Hannibal annihilated the Roman Legions at Cannae, the books were consulted, and on their recommendation, two Gauls and two Greeks were buried alive in the city's marketplace.
- 205-204 BC: During the Second Punic War, upon consultation of the Sibylline Books, an image of Cybele was transferred from Pessinos (or Pergamon) to Rome. An embassy was sent to Attalus I of Pergamon to negotiate the transfer. Publius Cornelius Scipio Nasica and Claudia Quinta were said to have received the image of Cybele at Ostia on her arrival in 204 BC. Cybele's image was placed within the Temple of Victory on the Palatine. In honour of Cybele a lecisternium was performed and her games, the Megalesia, were held. *[6] The image of Cybele was moved to the Temple of the Magna Mater in 191 BC when the temple was dedicated by Marcus Junius Brutus in the consulship of Publius Cornelius Scipio Nasica. *[7] A fragment of Valerius Antias from Livy's Ab Urbe Condita 36.36.4 records that Megalesia were again held in 191 BC and that "[they] were the first to be held with dramatic performances." *[8]
- 143 BC: Frontinus relates a story in which the Decemvirs consulted the books on another matter and found that a proposed project for the Marcia Aqueduct was improper, along with the Anio. After a debate in the Senate the project was resumed, presumably the necessity for water outweighed the oracle. Sextus Julius Frontinus, Aqueducts of Rome, Book I, Ch 7.
- 63 BC: Believing in a prediction of the books that 'three Cornelii' would dominate Rome, Publius Cornelius Lentulus Sura took part in the conspiracy of Catiline (Plutarch, *Life of Cicero*, XVII)
- ca. 55 BC: As Romans deliberated sending a force to restore Ptolemy XII to the throne of Egypt, lightning struck the statue of Jupiter on the Alban Mount; the oracles were consulted, and one was found to read "If the King of Egypt comes to you asking for assistance, refuse him not your friendship, yet do not grant him any army, or else you will have toil and danger". This considerably delayed Ptolemy's return. (Dio Cassius History of Rome 39:15)

21.3. REFERENCES 81

• 44 BC: According to Suetonius, a sibylline prediction that only a king could triumph over Parthia fueled rumors that Caesar, leader of the then-republic, was aspiring to kingship. (*Caesar*, 79)

- 15 AD: When the Tiber river flooded the lower parts of Rome, one of the priests suggested consulting the books, but Emperor Tiberius refused, preferring to keep the divine things secret. (Tacitus, *Annales* I, 76)
- 271: The books were consulted following the Roman defeat at Placentia by the Alamanni.
- 312: Maxentius consulted the *Sibylline Books* in preparation for combat with Constantine, who had just taken all of Maxentius' northern Italian cities and was marching on Rome.
- 363: Julian the Apostate consulted the books in preparation for marching against the Sassanids. The response mailed from Rome "in plain terms warned him not to quit his own territories that year." (Ammianus Marcellinus, *History of Rome*, XXIII 1, 7)
- 405: Stilicho ordered the destruction of the *Sibylline Books*, possibly because Sibylline prophecies were being used to attack his government in the face of the attack of Alaric I.

21.3 References

- [1] Orlin 2002;97.
- [2] See Orlin 2002:97f.
- [3] "after the burning of the Capitol during the Social War... the verses of the Sibyl, or Sibyls, as the case may be, were collected from Samos, Ilium, and Erythrae, and even in Africa, Sicily, and the Graeco-Italian colonies; the priests being entrusted with the task of sifting out the genuine specimens, so far as should have been possible by human means. "(Tacitus, *Annals*, VI.12.
- [4] Tacitus, Annals, eo. loc.
- [5] Terry, 1899.
- [6] For attestations see: Cicero *De Haruspicum Responsis* 24-28; Varro *Lingua Latina* 6.15; Diodorus Siculus 34.33.1-6; Livy 29.10.4-11.8, 29.14.1-14; [Verrius Flaccus] *Fasti Praenestini* April 4; Strabo *Geography* 12.5.3; Ovid *Fasti* 4.180-372; Valerius Maximus 8.15.3; Pliny *Natural History* 7.120; Silius Italicus *Punica* 17.1-45; Appian *The Hannibalic War* 56; Festus *De verborum significatu* S. 51-52 M, P. 237 M; Dio Cassius 17.61; Herodian 1.11.1-5; Arnobius *Adversus Nationes* 7.49-50; Lactantius *Divinae institutiones* 2.7.12; Julian *Hymn to the Mother of the Gods (Oration V)* 159c-161b; Ammianus Marcellinus 22.9.5; Augustine *De civitate Dei* 2.5, 10.16. Other minor sources exist but these are the major attestations.
- [7] For attestations see: Livy 36.36.3; Tacitus Annales 4.65; Valerius Maximus 1.8.11.
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21.5 External links

- article in Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities
- The Sybylline Oracles Index, translated from the Greek (1899)

Rauðskinna

Rauðskinna (English: *The Book of Power*), is a legendary book about black magic, alleged to have been buried with its author, the Bishop Gottskálk grimmi Nikulásson of Holar. The subject of the book was to learn to master magic to such a degree as to control Satan. The book has been the subject of legend and folklore and desired by practitioners of *galdr*. One such legend is when the galdr master Loftur Porsteinsson tried to acquire it and allegedly lost his life because of it.

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- Antiquarisk Tidsskrift, udgivet af det kongelige Nordiske Oldskrift ..., Volym 7

Tablet of Destinies (mythic item)

In Mesopotamian mythology, the **Tablet of Destinies** (Sumerian: *Dup Shimati*; not, as frequently misquoted in general works, the *Tablets of Destinies*) was envisaged as a clay tablet inscribed with cuneiform writing, also impressed with cylinder seals, which, as a permanent legal document, conferred upon the god Enlil his supreme authority as ruler of the universe.

In the Sumerian poem 'Ninurta and the Turtle' it is the god Enki, rather than Enlil, who holds the tablet.*[1] Both this poem and the Akkadian Anzû poem share concern of the theft of the tablet by the bird Imdugud (Sumerian) or Anzû (Akkadian).*[2] Supposedly, whoever possessed the tablet ruled the universe.*[3] In the Babylonian *Enuma Elish*, Tiamat bestows this tablet on Qingu (in some instances spelled "Kingu") and gives him command of her army. Marduk, the chosen champion of the gods, then fights and destroys Tiamat and her army. Marduk reclaims the Tablet of Destinies for himself, thereby strengthening his rule among the gods.

The tablet can be compared with the concept of the Me, divine decrees.

23.1 See also

• List of Mythological Objects

23.2 References

[1]

[2] J. Black and A. Green, Gods, Demons and Symbols of Ancient Mesopotamia: An Illustrated Dictionary, London: British Museum Press 1992, s.v. "Tablet of Destinies"

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- File:The_third_gift_—_an_enormous_hammer_by_Elmer_Boyd_Smith.jpg Source: http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/4/4c/The_third_gift_%E2%80%94_an_enormous_hammer_by_Elmer_Boyd_Smith.jpg License: Public domain Contributors: Page 88 of Brown, Abbie Farwell (1902). "In the Days of Giants: A Book of Norse Tales" Illustrations by E. Boyd Smith. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Original artist: Elmer Boyd Smith (1860 1943)
- File:Thor_kicks_Litr.jpg Source: http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/1/18/Thor_kicks_Litr.jpg License: Public domain Contributors: Doepler, Emil. ca. 1905. Walhall, die Götterwelt der Germanen. Martin Oldenbourg, Berlin. Page 53. Photographed and cropped by User:Haukurth. Original artist: Emil Doepler
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Tablet of Destinies (mythic item)

In Mesopotamian mythology, the **Tablet of Destinies** (Sumerian: *Dup Shimati*; not, as frequently misquoted in general works, the *Tablets of Destinies*) was envisaged as a clay tablet inscribed with cuneiform writing, also impressed with cylinder seals, which, as a permanent legal document, conferred upon the god Enlil his supreme authority as ruler of the universe.

In the Sumerian poem 'Ninurta and the Turtle' it is the god Enki, rather than Enlil, who holds the tablet.*[1] Both this poem and the Akkadian Anzû poem share concern of the theft of the tablet by the bird Imdugud (Sumerian) or Anzû (Akkadian).*[2] Supposedly, whoever possessed the tablet ruled the universe.*[3] In the Babylonian *Enuma Elish*, Tiamat bestows this tablet on Qingu (in some instances spelled "Kingu") and gives him command of her army. Marduk, the chosen champion of the gods, then fights and destroys Tiamat and her army. Marduk reclaims the Tablet of Destinies for himself, thereby strengthening his rule among the gods.

The tablet can be compared with the concept of the Me, divine decrees.

1.1 See also

• List of Mythological Objects

1.2 References

[1]

[2] J. Black and A. Green, Gods, Demons and Symbols of Ancient Mesopotamia: An Illustrated Dictionary, London: British Museum Press 1992, s.v. "Tablet of Destinies"

[3]

Baetylus



The Emesa temple to the sun god El-Gabal, with the Baetylus "holy stone"

Bactylus (also **Bethel**, or **Betyl**) is a word denoting a sacred stone, which was supposedly endowed with life. According to ancient sources, these objects of worship were meteorites, which were dedicated to the gods or revered as symbols of the gods themselves.*[1] An example is also mentioned at Bethel in Genesis 28:11-19.*[2]

In the Phoenician mythology related by Sanchuniathon, one of the sons of Uranus was named *Baetylus*.*[3] The worship of baetyli was widespread in the Phoenician colonies, including Carthage, even after the adoption of Christianity,

4 CHAPTER 2. BAETYLUS

and was denounced by St. Augustine of Hippo.

In ancient Greek religion and myth, the term was specially applied to the Omphalos,*[4] the stone supposed to have been swallowed by Cronus (who feared misfortune from his own children) in mistake for his infant son Zeus, for whom it had been substituted by Gaea.*[5] This stone was carefully preserved at Delphi, anointed with oil every day and on festive occasions covered with raw wool.*[6]

In Rome, there was the stone effigy of Rhea Cybele, or Mater Idaea Deum, that had been ceremoniously brought from Pessinus in Asia Minor in 204 BC.*[3] Another conical meteorite was enshrined in the Elagabalium to personify Elagabalus Sol Invictus.

In some cases an attempt was made to give a more regular form to the original shapeless stone: thus Apollo Agyieus was represented by a conical pillar with pointed end, Zeus Meilichius in the form of a pyramid. Other famous baetylic idols were those in the temples of Zeus Casius at Seleucia Pieria, and of Zeus Teleios at Tegea. Even in the declining years of paganism, these idols still retained their significance, as is shown by the attacks upon them by ecclesiastical writers.*[3] Among monotheists, the practice survives today with Islam's Black Stone.

2.1 See also

- Benben stone
- Black Stone
- Glossary of meteoritics
- List of Greek mythological figures
- Kami the central objects of worship for the Shinto faith, some of which are natural phenomena and natural objects (including stones).

2.2 Notes

- [1] Chisholm 1911 cites Pliny's Natural History xvii. 9; Patriarch Photios I of Constantinople, Myriobiblon, Codex 242.
- [2] Palmer 1997, p. 99.
- [3] One or more of the preceding sentences incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chisholm, Hugh, ed. (1911). "Baetylus". *Encyclopædia Britannica* 3 (11th ed.). Cambridge University Press. This has further references:
 - Munter, Über die vom Himmel gefallenen Steine (1805).
 - Bösigk, De Baetyliis (1854).
 - the exhaustive article by F. Lenormant in Daremberg and Saglio's Dictionary of Antiquities
- [4] Doniger 2000, p. 106.
- [5] Chisholm 1911 cites Etymologicum Magnum, s.v.
- [6] Chisholm 1911 cites Pausanias X. 24.

2.3 References

- Doniger, Wendy (2000), Merriam-Webster's Encyclopedia of World Religions, Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, p. 106, ISBN 0-87779-044-2
- Palmer, Robert Everett Allen (1997), Rome and Carthage at Peace, Stuttgart: F. Steiner, p. 99, ISBN 3-515-07040-0

2.4. FURTHER READING 5

2.4 Further reading

• Uta Kron: "Heilige Steine", in: *Kotinos. Festschrift für Erika Simon*, Mainz 1992, S. 56–70, ISBN 3-8053-1425-6

• Bob Trubshaw (February 1993). "The Black Stone - the Omphalos of the Goddess". *Mercian Mysteries* (14).

Cintamani

For Hindu Chintamani Ganesha shrine in Ashtavinayak temples, see Chintamani Temple, Theur. For City of India, see Chintamani, Karnataka.

Cintāmaṇi (Sanskrit; Devanagari: चिन्तामणि) also spelled as Chintamani (or the Chintamani Stone) is a wishfulfilling jewel within both Hindu and Buddhist traditions, equivalent to the philosopher's stone in Western alchemy. *[1]

In Buddhism it is held by the bodhisattvas, Avalokiteshvara and Ksitigarbha. It is also seen carried upon the back of the Lung ta (wind horse) which is depicted on Tibetan prayer flags. By reciting the Dharani of Cintamani, Buddhist tradition maintains that one attains the Wisdom of Buddha, able to understand the truth of the Buddha, and turn afflictions into Bodhi. It is said to allow one to see the Holy Retinue of Amitabha and assembly upon one's deathbed. In Tibetan Buddhist tradition the Chintamani is sometimes depicted as a luminous pearl and is in the possession of several of different forms of the Buddha.*[2]

Within Hinduism it is connected with the gods, Vishnu and Ganesha. In Hindu tradition it is often depicted as a fabulous jewel in the possession of the Naga king or as on the forehead of the Makara. The *Yoga Vasistha*, originally written in the 10th century AD, contains a story about the cintamani.*[3]

3.1 Nomenclature, orthography and etymology

• Cintāmaṇi (Sanskrit; Devanagari: चिन्तामणि): 'Wish-Fulfilling Gem' (Tibetan: व्याप्त क्षेत्रक्षेत्रहे, Wylie: yid bzhin norbu

)*[4]

● The *mani* (jewel) is translated in Chinese *ruyi* or *ruyizhu* 如意珠 "as one wishes jewel" or *ruyibaozhu* 如意 實珠 "as one wishes precious jewel". *Ruyibaozhu* is pronounced in Japanese *nyoi-hōju* or *nyoi-hōshu* 如意宝珠. *Ruyizhu* is pronounced in Korean *yeouiju* ⊠⊠.

3.2 History

In Buddhism the Chintamani is said to be one of four relics that came in a chest that fell from the sky (many terma fell from the sky in caskets) during the reign of king Lha Thothori Nyantsen of Tibet. Though the king did not understand the purpose of the objects, he kept them in a position of reverence. Several years later, two mysterious strangers appeared at the court of the king, explaining the four relics, which included the Buddha's bowl (possibly a Singing Bowl) and a mani stone with the Om Mani Padme Hum mantra inscribed on it. These few objects were the bringers of the Dharma to Tibet.

The Digital Dictionary of Buddhism's ruyizhu entry says:

A *maṇi*-jewel; magical jewel, which manifests whatever one wishes for (Skt. *maṇi*, *cintā-maṇi*, *cintāmaṇi-ratna*). According to one's desires, treasures, clothing and food can be manifested, while

3.3. POPULAR CULTURE 7

sickness and suffering can be removed, water can be purified, etc. It is a metaphor for the teachings and virtues of the Buddha. ...Said to be obtained from the dragon-king of the sea, or the head of the great fish, Makara, or the relics of a Buddha.

The Kintamani mountainous region in Bali was named after the Cintamani.

3.3 Popular culture

The Cintamani Stone is the subject of *Dragon Ball* and *Uncharted 2: Among Thieves*. In the former, the concept is used as seven mystical orbs known as Dragon Balls which when gathered together summon an Eternal Dragon capable of granting almost any wish, making them the target of several villains who desire eternal life or power over the universe. In the latter, it is not in fact a jewel but amber, fossilized resin from the Tree of Life which grants nigh invulnerability to those who use it, but at a terrible price, it turns the users into brutish, blue, simple-minded savages after long term exposure.

The Tibetan expedition of 1925-28 by Nicholas Roerich is often associated with the Cintamani Stone. Reportedly Roerich, living at that time in New York and being active in the League of Nations, was tasked with returning a fragment of the Stone to Tibet. *[5] From the letters of the future US Vice-President Henry A. Wallace it can be deduced that Roerich also brought the Stone to the US. *[6] According to many occult writings, the Stone is kept in the underground city of Shambhala and fragments of it are to be lent out to humanity to assist them in the time of great disasters and wars. Roerich travelled to Tibet with the Stone (after a mysterious detour to Russia via Siberia); it is speculated that he indeed reached Shambhala, as he was thought missing between summer of 1927 and June of 1928, when the entourage mysteriously reappeared in India.

3.4 See also

• Philosopher's stone

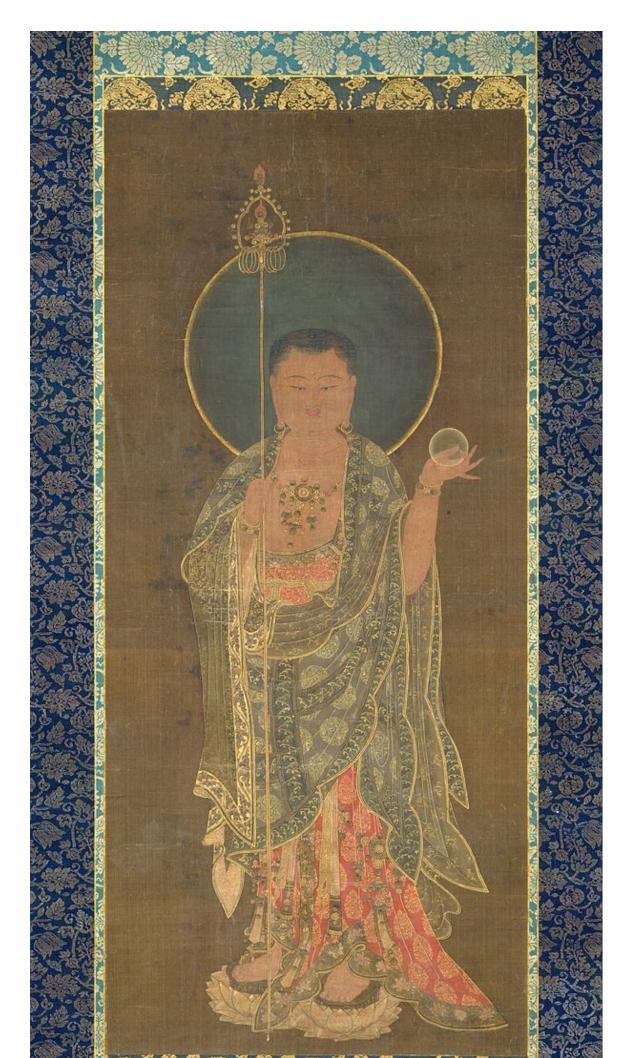
3.5 Notes

- [1] Guénon, René (2004) [1962]. Symbols of Sacred Science. Sophia Perennis, USA. ISBN 0-900588-78-0. p. 277
- [2] R. A. Donkin, Beyond price: pearls and pearl-fishing: origins to the Age of Discoveries, American Philosophical Society, 1998. ISBN 978-0-87169-224-5. p. 170
- [3] Venkatesananda, Swami (1984). *The Concise Yoga Vāsiṣṭha*. Albany: State University of New York Press. pp. 346–353. ISBN 0-87395-955-8. OCLC 11044869.
- [4] Scheidegger, Daniel (2009). 'The First Four Themes of Klong chen pa's *Tsig don bcu gcig pa*.' Achard, Jean-Luke (director) (2009). *Revue d'Etudes Tibetaines*. April 2009. p.49
- [5] http://www.bibliotecapleyades.net/sociopolitica/sociopol_shambahla11.htm
- [6] http://www.conspiracyarchive.com/NWO/All_Seeing_Eye.htm

3.6 References

• Beer, Robert (1999). *The Encyclopedia of Tibetan Symbols and Motifs* (Hardcover). Shambhala. ISBN 1-57062-416-X, ISBN 978-1-57062-416-2

8 CHAPTER 3. CINTAMANI



3.6. REFERENCES 9



Mani stone

Philosopher's stone

This article is about the legendary substance. For the Harry Potter book, see Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone. For Other uses, see Philosopher's Stone (disambiguation).

The **philosophers' stone** or **stone** of **the philosophers** (Latin: *lapis philosophorum*) is a legendary alchemical substance said to be capable of turning base metals such as lead into gold (*chrysopoeia*, from the Greek χρυσός khrusos, "gold," and ποιεῖν poiēin, "to make") or silver. It was also sometimes believed to be an elixir of life, useful for rejuvenation and possibly for achieving immortality; for many centuries, it was the most sought-after goal in alchemy. The philosophers' stone was the central symbol of the mystical terminology of alchemy, symbolizing perfection at its finest, enlightenment, and heavenly bliss. Efforts to discover the philosophers' stone were known as the Magnum Opus ("Great Work").*[1]

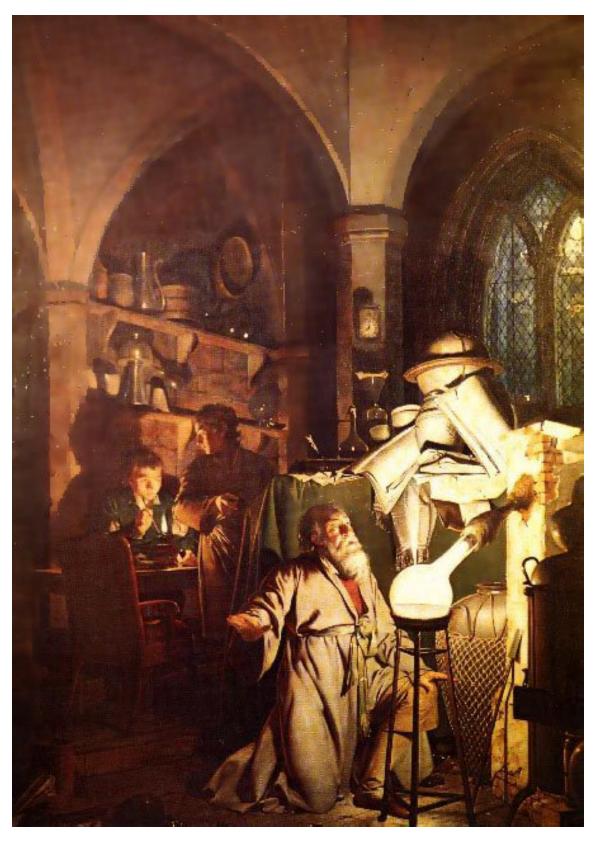
4.1 History

Mention of the philosophers' stone in writing can be found as far back as *Cheirokmeta* by Zosimos of Panopolis (c. 300 AD).*[2] Alchemical writers assign a longer history. Elias Ashmole and the anonymous author of *Gloria Mundi* (1620) claim that its history goes back to Adam who acquired the knowledge of the stone directly from God. This knowledge was said to be passed down through biblical patriarchs, giving them their longevity. The legend of the stone was also compared to the biblical history of the Temple of Solomon and the rejected cornerstone described in Psalm 118.*[3]

The theoretical roots outlining the stone's creation can be traced to Greek philosophy. Alchemists later used the classical elements, the concept of anima mundi, and Creation stories presented in texts like Plato's *Timaeus* as analogies for their process.*[4] According to Plato, the four elements are derived from a common source or prima materia (first matter), associated with chaos. *Prima materia* is also the name alchemist assign to the starting ingredient for the creation of the philosophers' stone. The importance of this philosophical first matter persisted through the history of alchemy. In the seventeenth century, Thomas Vaughan writes, "the first matter of the stone is the very same with the first matter of all things".*[5]

4.1.1 Middle Ages

The 8th-century alchemist Jabir ibn Hayyan (Latinized as *Geber*) analyzed each classical element in terms of the four basic qualities. Fire was both hot and dry, earth cold and dry, water cold and moist, and air hot and moist. He theorized that every metal was a combination of these four principles, two of them interior and two exterior. From this premise, it was reasoned that the transmutation of one metal into another could be affected by the rearrangement of its basic qualities. This change would presumably be mediated by a substance, which came to be called *al-iksir* in Arabic (from which the Western term *elixir* is derived). It is often considered to exist as a dry red powder (also known as al-Kibrit al-Ahmar المنافعة على المنافعة
4.1. HISTORY 11

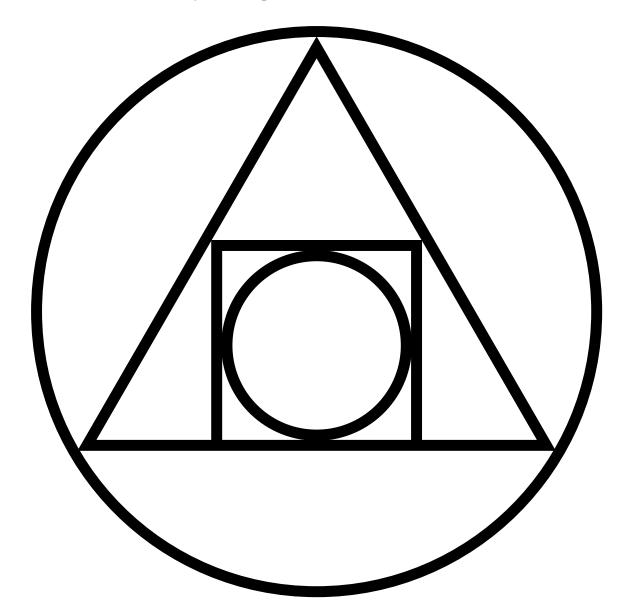


The Alchemist, In Search of the Philosophers' Stone by Joseph Wright of Derby, 1771.

In the 11th century, there was a debate among Muslim world chemists on whether the transmutation of substances was possible. A leading opponent was Avicenna (Ibn Sina), who discredited the theory of transmutation of substances, stating, "Those of the chemical craft know well that no change can be effected in the different species of substances, though they can produce the appearance of such change." *[8]

According to legend, the 13th-century scientist and philosopher Albertus Magnus is said to have discovered the philosophers' stone and passed it to his pupil, Thomas Aquinas, shortly before his death *circa* 1280. Magnus does not confirm he discovered the stone in his writings, but he did record that he witnessed the creation of gold by "transmutation".*[9]

4.1.2 Renaissance to early modern period



"Squaring the circle": an alchemical symbol (17th century) of the creation of the philosopher's stone

The 16th-century Swiss alchemist Paracelsus (*Philippus Aureolus Theophrastus Bombastus von Hohenheim*) believed in the existence of alkahest, which he thought to be an undiscovered element from which all other elements (earth, fire, water, air) were simply derivative forms. Paracelsus believed that this element was, in fact, the philosophers' stone.

The English physician-philosopher Sir Thomas Browne in his spiritual testament Religio Medici (1643) identified the religious aspect of the quest for the philosophers' Stone when declaring -

The smattering I have of the Philosophers stone, (which is something more then the perfect exaltation of gold) hath taught me a great deale of Divinity. $(R.M.Part\ 1:38)^*[10]$

A mystical text published in the 17th century called the *Mutus Liber* appears to be a symbolic instruction manual for concocting a philosophers' stone. Called the "wordless book", it was a collection of 15 illustrations.

4.2. PROPERTIES 13

4.1.3 Contemporary era

According to the modern understanding, gold is a chemical element that cannot be created from other elements by means of chemical reactions. Metallic gold can be dissolved from a rock and precipitated, giving the appearance that gold has been "created", but the gold was already in the rock. As a heavy element, the cosmogenic origin of gold must be in extremely energetic nuclear reactions, which occur only in high-mass stars. It has been proposed that most of heavy elements like gold are produced in neutron star collisions.*[11] Thus, all gold on Earth was accreted on Earth during the formation of the Earth and the solar system, and no new gold is being created.

Very small amounts of gold can be created artificially with particle accelerators or nuclear reactors, see Gold in synthesis. However, these methods produce radioactive isotopes and are extremely costly, requiring rare precursor isotopes and expensive product separation and purification. Thus, synthesis of gold by nuclear reaction does not appear commercially viable.

In 2014 the Swedish artist Max Magnus Norman published the book *Magnum Opus**[12] (ISBN 91-7517-609-2) in which he claims and describes how he unsought managed to create The Philosopher's Stone. The book is a manual on how to reach spiritual and physical enlightenment and the method described is illegal in most countries, and not without risks.

4.1.4 In Buddhism and Hinduism

Main article: Cintamani

The equivalent of the philosophers' stone in Buddhism and Hinduism is the Cintamani.*[13]

In Buddhism, *Chintamani* is held by the bodhisattvas, Avalokiteshvara and Ksitigarbha. It is also seen carried upon the back of the Lung ta (wind horse) which is depicted on Tibetan prayer flags. By reciting the Dharani of Chintamani, Buddhist tradition maintains that one attains the Wisdom of Buddhas, is able to understand the truth of the Buddhas, and turns afflictions into Bodhi. It is said to allow one to see the Holy Retinue of Amitabha and his assembly upon one's deathbed. In Tibetan Buddhist tradition the Chintamani is sometimes depicted as a luminous pearl and is in the possession of several of different forms of the Buddha.*[14]

Within Hinduism it is connected with the gods Vishnu and Ganesha. In Hindu tradition it is often depicted as a fabulous jewel in the possession of the Nāga king or as on the forehead of the Makara. The *Yoga Vasistha*, originally written in the 10th century AD, contains a story about the philosophers' stone.*[15]

A great Hindu sage wrote about the spiritual accomplishment of Gnosis using the metaphor of the philosophers' stone. Saint Jnaneshwar (1275–1296), wrote a commentary with 17 references to the philosophers' stone that explicitly transmutes base metal into gold. The seventh century Indian sage Thirumoolar in his classic *Tirumandhiram* explains man's path to immortal divinity. In verse 2709 he declares that the name of God, Shiva or the god Shambala, is an alchemical vehicle that turns the body into immortal gold.

It could also be the Syamantaka mani.

4.2 Properties

The philosophers' stone has been attributed with many mystical and magical properties. The most commonly mentioned properties are the ability to transmute base metals into gold or silver, and the ability to heal all forms of illness and prolong the life of any person who consumes a small part of the philosophers' stone.*[16] Other mentioned properties include: creation of perpetually burning lamps,*[16] transmutation of common crystals into precious stones and diamonds,*[16] reviving of dead plants,*[16] creation of flexible or malleable glass,*[17] or the creation of a clone or homunculus.*[18]

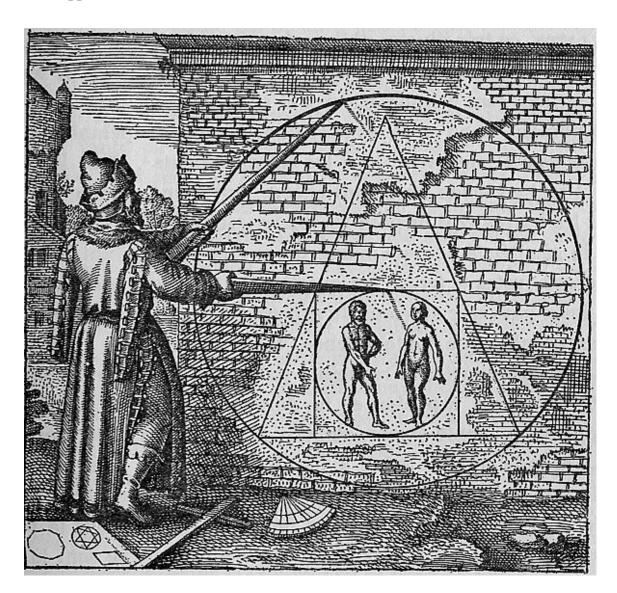
4.2.1 Names

Numerous synonyms were used to make oblique reference to the stone, such as "white stone" (calculus albus, identified with the calculus candidus of Revelation 2:17 which was taken as a symbol of the glory of heaven*[19]), vitriol (as expressed in the backronym Visita Interiora Terrae Rectificando Invenies Occultum Lapidem), also lapis

noster, lapis occultus, in water at the box, and numerous oblique, mystical or mythological references such as Adam, Aer, Animal, Alkahest, Antidotus, Antimonium, Aqua benedicta, Aqua volans per aeram, Arcanum, Atramentum, Autumnus, Basilicus, Brutorum cor, Bufo, Capillus, Capistrum auri, Carbones, Cerberus, Chaos, Cinis cineris, Crocus, Dominus philosophorum, Divine quintessence, Draco elixir, Filius ignis, Fimus, Folium, Frater, Granum, Granum frumenti, Haematites, Hepar, Herba, Herbalis, Lac, Melancholia, Ovum philosophorum, Panacea salutifera, Pandora, Phoenix, Philosophic mercury, Pyrites, Radices arboris solares, Regina, Rex regum, Sal metallorum, Salvator terrenus, Talcum, Thesaurus, Ventus hermetis.* [20] Many of the medieval allegories for a Christ were adopted for the lapis, and the Christ and the Stone were indeed taken as identical in a mystical sense. The name of "Stone" or lapis itself is informed by early Christian allegory, such as Priscillian (4th century), who stated Unicornis est Deus, nobis petra Christus, nobis lapis angularis Jesus, nobis hominum homo Christus.* [21] In some texts it is simply called 'stone', or our stone, or in the case of Thomas Norton's Ordinal, "oure delycious stone". * [22] The stone was frequently praised and referred to in such terms.

It needs to be noted that *philosophorum* does not mean "of the philosopher" or "the philosopher's" in the sense of a single philosopher. It means "of the philosophers" in the sense of a plurality of philosophers.

4.2.2 Appearance



Philosopher's stone as pictured in Michael Maier's Atalanta Fugiens Emblem 21

Descriptions of the Philosophers' Stone are numerous and various.*[23] According to alchemical texts, the stone of the philosophers came in two varieties, prepared by an almost identical method: white (for the purpose of making

4.3. CREATION 15

silver), and red (for the purpose of making gold), the white stone being a less matured version of the red stone.*[24] Some ancient and medieval alchemical texts leave clues to the supposed physical appearance of the stone of the philosophers, specifically the red stone. It is often said to be orange (saffron colored) or red when ground to powder. Or in a solid form, an intermediate between red and purple, transparent and glass-like.*[25] The weight is spoken of as being heavier than gold,*[26] and it is said to be soluble in any liquid, yet incombustible in fire.*[27]

Alchemical authors sometimes suggest that the stone's descriptors are metaphorical. It is called a stone, not because it is like a stone.*[28] The appearance is expressed geometrically in Michael Maier's Atalanta Fugiens. "Make of a man and woman a circle; then a quadrangle; out of the this a triangle; make again a circle, and you will have the Stone of the Wise. Thus is made the stone, which thou canst not discover, unless you, through diligence, learn to understand this geometrical teaching." *[29] Rupescissa uses the imagery of the Christian passion, telling us it ascends "from the sepulcher of the Most Excellent King, shining and glorious, resuscitated from the dead and wearing a red diadem..." .*[30]

4.2.3 Interpretations

The various names and attributes assigned to the philosophers' stone has led to long-standing speculation on its composition and source. Exoteric candidates have been found in metals, plants, rocks, chemical compounds, and bodily products such as hair, urine, and eggs. Justus von Liebig states that 'it was indispensable that every substance accessible... should be observed and examined'.*[31] Alchemists once thought a key component in the creation of the stone was a mythical element named carmot.*[32]*[33]

Esoteric hermetic alchemists may reject work on exoteric substances, instead directing their search for the philosophers' stone inward.*[34] Though esoteric and exoteric approaches are sometimes mixed, it is clear that some authors "are not concerned with material substances but are employing the language of exoteric alchemy for the sole purpose of expressing theological, philosophical, or mystical beliefs and aspirations." *[35] New interpretations continue to be developed around spagyric, chemical, and esoteric schools of thought.

4.3 Creation

Main article: Magnum opus (alchemy)

The philosophers' stone is created by the alchemical method known as The Magnum Opus or The Great Work. Often expressed as a series of color changes or chemical processes, the instructions for creating the philosophers' stone are varied. When expressed in colors, the work may pass through phases of nigredo, albedo, citrinitas, and rubedo. When expressed as a series of chemical processes it often includes seven or twelve stages concluding in multiplication, and projection.

4.4 Art and entertainment

Main article: Alchemy in art and entertainment

The philosophers' stone has been a focal point in many novels, comics, movies, animations, video games, and musical compositions. The philosophers' stone is a crucial element in the plot of the *Fullmetal Alchemist* manga and anime, as well as the films *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone*, *Doctor Mordrid*, medieval mystery novel "Shadow of the Alchemist" *[36] and *As Above*, *So Below*.

4.5 See also

4.6 References

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4.8 External links

• The Philosophers' Stone by Edward Kelly

Sessho-seki



Sessho-seki, Nasu, Tochigi

The **Sessho-seki** (殺生石 *Sesshōseki*), or "Killing Stone", is an object in Japanese mythology. It is said that the stone kills anyone who comes into contact with it. The stone is believed to be the transformed corpse of Tamamo no Mae, a beautiful woman who was exposed to be a kind nine-tailed fox working for an evil daimyo plotting to kill the Japanese Emperor Konoe and take his throne. As told in the *Otogizoshi*, when the nine-tailed fox was killed by the famous warrior Miura-no-suke, its body became the Sessho-seki.

The Sessho-seki was said to be haunted by Hoji, the transformed spirit of the kind fox, until a Buddhist priest called Genno stopped for a rest near the stone, and was threatened by Hoji. Genno performed certain spiritual rituals, and begged the spirit to consider her spiritual salvation, until finally Hoji relented and swore to never haunt the stone again.

In Matsuo Bashō's famous book, *The Narrow Road to the Deep North (Oku no Hosomichi*), Bashō tells of visiting the stone in Nasu, located in modern-day Tochigi Prefecture. Today, an area in the volcanic mountains of Nasu (famous for their sulfur hot springs) commemorates the myth.

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Singasteinn

In Norse mythology, **Singasteinn** (Old Norse "singing stone" or "chanting stone") is an object that appears in the account of Loki and Heimdall's fight in the form of seals. The object is solely attested in the skaldic poem *Húsdrápa*. Some scholars have interpreted it as the location of the struggle, others as the object they were struggling over.

6.1 Húsdrápa

The scene is described in the skald Úlfr Uggason's *Húsdrápa*, as found in the 13th century Icelandic *Prose Edda*:

In the *Prose Edda*, Snorri Sturluson interprets Singasteinn as the skerry at which Loki and Heimdall fought. Referring to the same poem, he says that Heimdall may be called "Frequenter of Vágasker ["waves-skerry"] and Singasteinn";*[3] this gives another name for the skerry*[4] and this is also where he states that they were in the form of seals, showing that there was more of the poem on this story. Brodeur has followed Snorri in his translation, and so have some scholarly analyses. For example Gabriel Turville-Petre says, "Singasteinn was evidently a rock far out at sea." *[5] Viktor Rydberg, following Snorri in seeing the struggle as over Freyja's necklace Brísingamen, went a step further and saw the necklace as having been lying on the skerry.*[6]

Alternatively at singasteini has been taken to refer to what Heimdall and Loki were fighting over, parallel to the hafnýra fogru, "beautiful sea-kidney" (which Brodeur rendered as simply "stone"). In this light, there is an attractive emendation of singasteini to signasteini, "magic stone, amulet." *[7] Several scholars have pointed out that both "sea-kidney" and "magic stone" fit less well with Brísingamen, a necklace, than with Caribbean drift-seeds that can be found on the beaches of Iceland, Orkney, the Hebrides and the Scandinavian mainland and have been traditionally used as amulets, particularly to ease childbirth; their European names include vettenyrer, wight (Old Norse vættr) kidneys.*[7]*[8]*[9]*[10]

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- [6] Viktor Rydberg, Teutonic Mythology, tr. Rasmus B. Anderson, London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1889, OCLC 504219736, p. 558.
- [7] Audrey Meaney, "Drift Seeds and the Brisingamen", Folklore 94.1 (1983) 33-39, p. 33.
- [8] Jan de Vries, *Altgermanische Religionsgeschichte*, Volume 2, 2nd ed. Berlin: de Gruyter, 1957, repr. as 3rd ed. 1970, OCLC 466619179, pp. 260 and 311-12 (German), using this as the basis for arguing that Brísingamen only later came to be thought of as a *men*, a necklace, after the original idea of an amulet bound on the hips had faded.
- [9] Heizmann, p. 512 says this connection has been made "fairly often."
- [10] Franz Rolf Schröder, "Heimdall," *Beiträge zur Geschichte der Deutschen Sprache und Literatur (PBB)* 89 (1967) 1–41 (German) suggests that *hafnýra* is simply a kenning for "island". According to Heizmann, p. 310, that was a cornerstone of Kurt Schier's argument that Singasteinn was the location.

6.3 Sources

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Llech Ronw

Llech Ronw, or the Slate of Gronw, is a holed stone located along Afon Bryn Saeth (a tributary of Afon Cynfael) in Blaenau Ffestiniog, Wales. The stone is described as being roughly forty inches by thirty inches with a hole of about an inch in diameter going through it.*[1]

7.1 History

Llech Ronw was discovered by Frank Ward in 1934 on the bank of Afon Cynfal. It was believed to have washed downstream from Ceunant Coch. A few years ago, Llech Ronw was rediscovered along Afon Bryn Saeth.*[1]*[2] Today, Llech Ronw stands on a farmstead known as Bryn Saeth, or the Hill of the Arrow.

7.2 Role in mythology

In the Fourth Branch of the Mabinogi (the story of Math ap Mathonwy), Lleu Llaw Gyffes is betrayed by his wife, Blodeudd, when she elopes with Gronw Pebyr. Blodeuedd and Gronw plot to kill Lleu, and while Lleu is on the bank of Afon Cynfael, Gronw hurls a spear at him. Lleu is deeply wounded and flees in the shape of an eagle.

At the end of the tale, Lleu seeks recompense from Gronw for the attempted murder. Thus Lleu and Gronw end up once again on opposite banks of Afon Cynfal, only this time Lleu is preparing to throw a spear at Gronw. However, before Lleu can do away with his opponent, Gronw asks for a stipulation.

Then Gronw Pebyr said to Lleu, 'Lord, since I did what I did to you through the maliciousness of a woman, I beg of you for God's sake let me put the stone I see there on the bank between me and the blow.'

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'God knows,' said Lleu, 'I won' t refuse you that.' *[3]
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Yet the stone does not stop Lleu's spear, which goes right through it, killing Gronw.

And Gronw Pebyr died, and the stone is there still on the bank of the Cynfael in Ardudwy, with the hole through it. Because of that it is called Gronw's Stone.*[4]

Llech Ronw, given its appearance and location, is thought to be the stone here described as Gronw's Stone.*[2]

In lieu of the mythological nature of Llech Ronw, it is interesting to note the name of the farmstead where it now stands, Bryn Saeth (Hill of the Arrow), as well as the name of the nearby farmstead, Llech Goronwy (Goronwy's Slate). In addition, there is another hill in the area called, Bryn Cyfergyd, which may be the Bryn Cygergyr (Hill of Battle) of the Mabinogi and thus the hill from which Gronw threw his spear while attempting to kill Lleu.*[5]

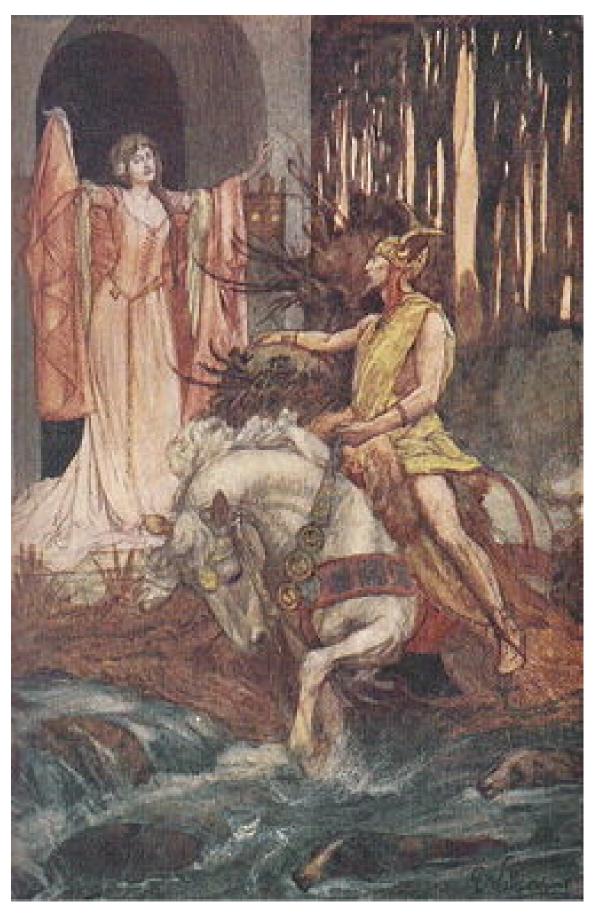
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Gronw and Blodeuwedd.

Adder stone



hagstone, location: Dänholm, Germany, Baltic Sea

An **adder stone** is a type of stone, usually glassy, with a naturally occurring hole through it. Such stones have been discovered by archaeologists in both Britain and Egypt. Commonly, they are found in Northern Germany at the coasts of the North and Baltic Seas.

In Britain they are also called **hag stones**, *[1] **witch stones**, **serpent's eggs**, **snake's eggs**, or *Glain Neidr* in Wales, *milpreve* in Cornwall, *adderstanes* in the south of Scotland and *Gloine nan Druidh* ("Druids' glass" in Scottish Gaelic) in the north. In Egypt they are called *aggry* or *aggri*.

Adder stones were believed to have magical powers such as protection against eye diseases or evil charms, preventing

nightmares, curing whooping cough, the ability to see through fairy or witch disguises and traps if looked at through the middle of the stone, and of course recovery from snakebite. According to popular conception, a true adder stone will float in water.

Three traditions exist as to the origins of adder stones. One holds that the stones are the hardened saliva of large numbers of serpents massing together, the perforations being caused by their tongues. The second claims that an adder stone comes from the head of a serpent or is made by the sting of an adder. The third is more modern (and much easier to attain). It details that the stone can be any rock with a hole bored through the middle by water. Human intervention (i.e., direction of water or placement of the stone) is not allowed.*[2]

Adder stone was held in high esteem amongst the Druids. It was one of their distinguishing badges, and was accounted to possess the most extraordinary virtues. There is a passage in Pliny's *Natural History*, book xix, minutely describing the nature and the properties of this amulet. The following is a translation of it:

"There is a sort of egg in great repute among the Gauls, of which the Greek writers have made no mention. A vast number of serpents are twisted together in summer, and coiled up in an artificial knot by their saliva and slime; and this is called "the serpent's egg". The druids say that it is tossed in the air with hissings and must be caught in a cloak before it touches the earth. The person who thus intercepts it, flies on horseback; for the serpents will pursue him until prevented by intervening water. This egg, though bound in gold will swim against the stream. And the magi are cunning to conceal their frauds, they give out that this egg must be obtained at a certain age of the moon. I have seen that egg as large and as round as a common sized apple, in a chequered cartilaginous cover, and worn by the Druids. It is wonderfully extolled for gaining lawsuits, and access to kings. It is a badge which is worn with such ostentation, that I knew a Roman knight, a Vocontian, who was slain by the stupid emperor Claudius, merely because he wore it in his breast when a lawsuit was pending."

Huddleston's edition of Toland gives some very ingenious conjectures on the subject of this very enigmatical Druids' egg. The amulets of glass and stone, which are still preserved and used with implicit faith in many parts of Scottish Gaeldom, and are conveyed, for the cure of diseases to a great distance, seem to have their origin in this bauble of ancient priestcraft.

8.1 In Welsh mythology

The *Glain Neidr* or *Maen Magi* of Welsh folklore is also closely connected to Druidism. The *Glain Neidr* of Wales are believed to be created by a congress of snakes, normally occurring in spring, but most auspicious on May Eve.*[3]

Although not named as Glain Neidr, magic stones with the properties of adder stones appear frequently in Welsh mythology and folklore. The *Mabinogion*, translated into English in the mid-nineteenth century by Lady Charlotte Guest, mentions such stones on two occasions. In the story of Peredur son of Efrawg (Percival of the Arthurian cycle), in a departure from Chrétien de Troyes' *Perceval*, *the Story of the Grail*, Peredur is given a magical stone that allows him to see and kill an invisible creature called the Addanc.*[4] In another tale, *Owain*, *or the Lady of the Fountain* (Ynwin of Arthurian legend), the hero Owain mab Urien is trapped in the gatehouse of a castle. He is given a stone by a maiden, which turns Owain invisible, allowing him to escape capture.

8.2 External links

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Lyngurium



As is usual in bestiaries, the lynx in this late 13th-century English manuscript is shown urinating, the urine turning to the mythical stone lyngurium.

Lyngurium or **Ligurium** is the name of a mythical gemstone believed to be formed of the solidified urine of the lynx (the best ones coming from wild males). It was included in classical and "almost every medieval lapidary" [1] or book of gems until it gradually disappeared from view in the 17th century. [2]

9.1 Properties and history

As well as various medical properties, lyngurium was credited with the power to attract objects, including metal; in fact it seems likely that what was thought to be lyngurium was either a type of yellow amber, which was known to the Ancient Greeks, but obtained from the distant Baltic coast, or forms of tourmaline. The first surviving description of Lyngurium is by Theophrastus (died c. 287 BC), and most later descriptions derive from his account.*[3] Theophrastus said it was:*[4]

...carved into signets and is hard as any stone, [and] has an unusual power. For it attracts other objects just as amber does, and some people claim that it acts not only on straws and leaves, but also on thin pieces of copper and iron, as Diocles maintained. The lyngurium is cold and very clear. A wild lynx produces better stones than a tame animal, and a male better ones than a female, there being a difference in the diet, in the exercise taken or not taken, and, in general, in the natural constitution of the body, in as much as the body is drier in the case of the former and more moist in the case of the latter. The

stone is discovered only when experienced searchers dig it up, for when the lynx has passed its urine, it conceals it and scrapes soil over it.

In the 1st century AD Pliny the Elder discusses the stone, but makes it clear that he does not believe in it, or at least its supposed origin: [5] "I for my part am of the opinion that the whole story is false and that no gemstone bearing this name has been seen in our time. Also false are the statements made simultaneously about its medical properties, to the effect that when it is taken in liquid it breaks up stones in the bladder, and that it relieves jaundice if it is swallowed in wine or even looked at". *[6] He also mentioned the belief that the hiding of the solidified urine was because lynxes had a "grudge against mankind", and deliberately hid what they knew to be highly beneficial objects for man. *[7] This idea was apparently also mentioned by Theophrastus in a different, lost, work *On creatures said to be grudging*, and was still alive in the 15th century: "she hidith it for envy that hire vertues shulde not helpe vs". *[8] Another version was that the lynx swallowed the stone and "withholt in his throte wel depe that the grete vertues there-of ne shulde nought be helpyng to vs" ("withholds it in his throat knowing that the virtues thereof should not be helping us"). *[9]

The belief that male urine produced better stones related to a general ancient and medieval idea that inorganic materials could be gendered into generally superior male forms and their weaker female forms.*[10] The 11th century Islamic scientist Abū Rayḥān al-Bīrūnī was critical of a popular belief, not mentioned in other sources, that the stone could make people change gender.*[11]

The meaning and origin of the word seems to have been confused early on with a geographical origin, either in Liguria in northern Italy, or a part of Sicily which produced amber.*[12] A version of the name, apparently started by Flavius Josephus was *ligure*, and under this name the Vulgate Latin Bible described the seventh stone on the Priestly breastplate in the Book of Exodus, called either amber or jacinth in modern translations, though one 19th-century Danish translation used *lyncuren*.*[13]

9.2 Renaissance scepticism

Although "the first English zoology" *The Noble Lyte and Nature of Man* (1521) written or at least printed by Lawrence Andrewe, still said that the lynx's "pisse baketh in ye sonne and that becommeth a ryche stone", by 1607 the clergyman Edward Topsell, though repeating many fabulous medieval beliefs about zoology, rejected lyngurium: "Latines did feigne an etimology of the word Lyncurium and uppon this weake foundation have they raised that vaine buildinge".*[14] The death of belief in lyngurium generated a few attempts to find more scientific explanations, and a considerable amount of scholarly squabbling, but the absence of physical specimens was soon fatal.*[15]

9.3 See also

Toadstone

9.4 Notes

- [1] Walton, 364, quoted
- [2] Walton, 377
- [3] Walton, 364–365, 377–378 (see in particular note 39 on 365 for further references and possibilities), abstract & throughout; Eichholz, 103–104; Harris, 49 and note
- [4] Walton, 364, quoted
- [5] Sharples, 81-82; Walton, 367
- [6] Walton, 367, quoting Pliny
- [7] Walton, 367
- [8] Walton, 369-371, 371 quoted
- [9] Walton, 369

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- [10] Walton, 365-367; Harris, 47-48
- [11] Walton, 367
- [12] Sharples, 81; Whatmough, 243; Walton, 371
- [13] Walton, 371
- [14] Walton, 376, 375, both quoted
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Toadstone

The **toadstone** (like the batrachite), also known as **bufonite**, is a mythical stone or gem thought to be found in, or produced by, a toad, and is supposed to be an antidote to poison. Artifacts called "toadstones" were actually the fossilized teeth of *Lepidotes*, an extinct genus of ray-finned fish from the Jurassic and Cretaceous periods, as they appeared to be "stones that are perfect in form".*[1]

10.1 Beliefs

At some point, people began to associate the fossils with jewels that some believed were formed, by supernatural means, in the heads of toads. They were first recorded by Pliny the Elder in the first century.*[1]

According to Paul Taylor of the English Natural History Museum:

Like tonguestones, toadstones were considered to be antidotes for poison and were also used in the treatment of epilepsy".*[1] As early as the 14th century, people began to adorn jewelry with toadstones for their magical abilities. In their folklore, a toadstone was required to be removed from an old toad while the creature was still alive, and as instructed by the 17th century naturalist Edward Topsell, could be done by setting the toad on a piece of red cloth.*[1]

"Toadstone" is also an old miner's name for the basaltic intrusions into Derbyshire limestone.*[2]

10.2 Allusions in literature

The toadstone is alluded to by Duke Senior in Shakespeare's As You Like It, in Act 2, Scene 1, lines 12 through 14:

Sweet are the uses of adversity; Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous, Wears yet a precious jewel in his head.

In James Branch Cabell's short story "Balthazar's Daughter" (collected in *The Certain Hour*) and its subsequent play adaptation *The Jewel Merchants*, Alessandro de Medici attempts to seduce Graciosa by listing various precious jewels in his possession, including "jewels cut from the brain of a toad".

10.3 Various other names

Some various other names of the toadstone are:

10.4 References

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- [2] (Whitehurst, John (1713-1788). An inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth, pp 184-5, 190 and ff)
- New Oxford American Dictionary, under the entry "toadstone".
- The Complete Works of William Shakespeare by Crown Publishers Inc

10.5 External links

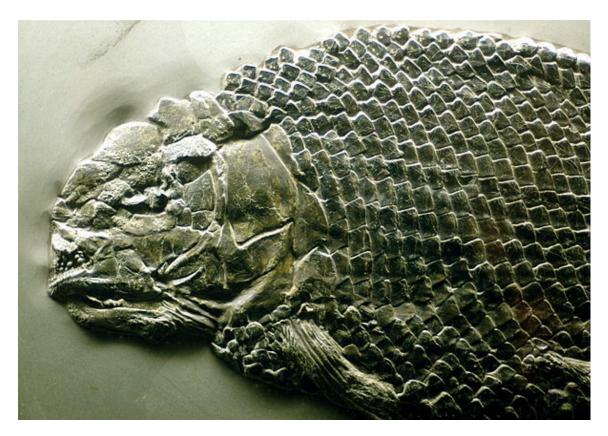
- A collection of notes maintained by James Eason of the University of Chicago comprising excerpts from Thomas Nicols and other authors
- New York Times reference, October 1890
- "Whitehurst and the Volcanic Origin of Toadstone, 1778"
- "Toadstones: A note to Pseudodoxia Epidemica, Book III, chapter 13"
- Whitehurst, John (1713-1788). An inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth, pp 184-5, 190 and ff).

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Fossilized Lepidotes, showing detail of the skull, from which toadstones originated

Stone of Scone



File:Stone of scone replica 170609.jpg

A replica of the Stone of Scone

The **Stone of Scone** (/'sku:n/; Scottish Gaelic: *An Lia Fàil*, Scots: *Stane o Scuin*)—also known as the **Stone of Destiny**, and often referred to in England as **The Coronation Stone**—is an oblong block of red sandstone that was used for centuries in the coronation of the monarchs of Scotland, and later the monarchs of England and the Kingdom of Great Britain. Historically, the artefact was kept at the now-ruined Scone Abbey in Scone, near Perth, Scotland. It is also known as Jacob's Pillow Stone and the Tanist Stone, and in Scottish Gaelic, *clach-na-cinneamhain*. Its size is about 26 inches (660 mm) by 16.75 inches (425 mm) by 10.5 inches (270 mm) and its weight is approximately 336 pounds (152 kg). A roughly incised cross exists on one surface, and an iron ring at each end aids with transportation.*[1] The Stone of Scone was last used in 1953 for the coronation of Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

11.1 Tradition and history

11.1.1 Origin and legends

In the 14th century, the English cleric and historian Walter Hemingford described the location of the Scottish coronation stone as the monastery of Scone, a few miles north of Perth:

Apud Monasterium de Scone positus est lapis pergrandis in ecclesia Dei, juxta manum altare, concavus quidem ad modum rotundae cathedreaie confectus, in quo futuri reges loco quasi coronationis ponebantur ex more.



Replica of the Stone of Scone at Scone Palace

In the monastery of Scone, in the church of God, near to the high altar, is kept a large stone, hollowed out as a round chair, on which their kings were placed for their ordination, according to custom.

Various theories and legends exist about the Stone's history prior to its placement in Scone:

- One story concerns Fergus, son of Erc, the first King of the Scots in Scotland, whose transportation of the Stone from Ireland to Argyll, where he was crowned in it, was recorded.*[2]
 - Some versions identify the stone brought by Fergus with the Lia Fáil used at Tara for the High King of Ireland. Other traditions contend the Lia Fáil remains at Tara.*[3]*[4]
- Legends place the origins of the Stone in Biblical times and consider the Stone to be the Stone of Jacob, taken by Jacob while in Haran.*[5] (Genesis 28:10-22).*[6]
- According to Hector Boece, the stone was first kept in the lost city of Evonium, in the west of Scotland.

Geologists proved that the Stone taken by Edward I of England to Westminster*[7] is a "lower Old Red Sandstone", which is quarried in the vicinity of Scone.*[8] Although, doubts over the authenticity of the Stone that is stored have existed for a long time—a blog post by retired Scottish academic and writer of historical fiction Marie MacPherson shows that they date back at least two hundred years.*[9]

A letter to the editor of the Morning Chronicle, dated 2 January 1819, states:

On the 19th of November, as the servants belonging to the West Mains of Dunsinane-house, were employed in carrying away stones from the excavation made among the ruins that point out the site of Macbeth's castle here, part of the ground they stood on suddenly gave way, and sank down about six feet, discovering a regularly built vault, about six feet long and four wide. None of the men being injured, curiosity induced them to clear out the subterranean recess, when they discovered among the ruins a large stone, weighing about 500l [230 kg]. which is pronounced to be of the meteoric or semi-metallic

kind. This stone must have lain here during the long series of ages since Macbeth's reign. Besides it were also found two round tablets, of a composition resembling bronze. On one of these two lines are engraved, which a gentleman has thus deciphered.—'The sconce (or shadow) of kingdom come, until Sylphs in air carry me again to Bethel.' These plates exhibit the figures of targets for the arms. From time immemorial it has been believed among us here, that unseen hands brought Jacob's pillow from Bethel and dropped it on the site where the palace of Scoon now stands. A strong belief is also entertained by many in this part of the country that it was only a representation of this Jacob's pillow that Edward sent to Westminster, the sacred stone not having been found by him. The curious here, aware of such traditions, and who have viewed these venerable remains of antiquity, agree that Macbeth may, or rather must, have deposited the stone in question at the bottom of his Castle, on the hill of Dunsinane (from the trouble of the times), where it has been found by the workmen. This curious stone has been shipped for London for the inspection of the scientific amateur, in order to discover its real quality.*[1]

11.1.2 Westminster Abbey

In 1296 the Stone was captured by Edward I as spoils of war and taken to Westminster Abbey, where it was fitted into a wooden chair—known as King Edward's Chair—on which most subsequent English sovereigns have been crowned. Edward I sought to claim his status as the "Lord Paramount" of Scotland, with the right to oversee its King.*[10]

Some doubt exists over the stone captured by Edward I. The Westminster Stone theory posits that the monks at Scone Palace hid the real stone in the River Tay, or buried it on Dunsinane Hill, and that the English troops were tricked into taking a substitute. Some proponents of the theory claim that historic descriptions of the Stone do not match the present stone.*[5]

In The Treaty of Northampton 1328, between the Kingdom of Scotland and the Kingdom of England, England agreed to return the captured Stone to Scotland; however, riotous crowds prevented it from being removed from Westminster Abbey.*[11] The Stone remained in England for another six centuries, even after James VI of Scotland assumed the English throne as James I of England. For the next century, the Stuart Kings and Queens of Scotland once again sat on the stone, but at their coronation as Kings and Queens of England.

11.1.3 Removal and damage

Main article: Removal of the Stone of Scone in 1950

On Christmas Day 1950, a group of four Scottish students (Ian Hamilton, Gavin Vernon, Kay Matheson, and Alan Stuart) removed the Stone from Westminster Abbey for return to Scotland.*[12] During the removal process, the Stone broke into two pieces.*[13]*[14] After burying the greater part of the Stone in a Kent field, where they camped*[15] for a few days, they uncovered the buried stone and returned to Scotland, along with a new accomplice, John Josselyn. Although an Englishman, Josselyn, who was then a student at the University of Glasgow, was a Scottish Nationalist. Furthermore, Edward I was Josselyn's 21st great grandfather.*[16] The smaller piece was similarly brought north at a later time. The entire Stone was passed to a senior Glasgow politician, who arranged for it to be professionally repaired by Glasgow stonemason Robert Gray.

A major search for the stone was ordered by the British Government, but proved unsuccessful. The custodians left the Stone on the altar of Arbroath Abbey on 11 April 1951, in the safekeeping of the Church of Scotland. Once the London police were informed of its whereabouts, the Stone was returned to Westminster four months after it was removed. Afterward, rumours circulated that copies had been made of the Stone, and that the returned Stone was not in fact the original.*[17]*[18]

In 2003, a team of geologists examined the stone and confirmed that it was Old Red Sandstone of a type found in East Perthshire. The original Stone of Destiny (Jacob's Pilllar) came from Bethel, near Jerusalem and was of a composite rock formation not found in Britain or Ireland. In an interview with a Scottish newspaper in 2008, Robert Gray's children, Morag and Gordon, confirmed that their father had made a replica but took the secret of the whereabouts of the original to his grave.



The Stone of Scone in the Coronation Chair at Westminster Abbey, 1855.

11.1.4 Return to Scotland

In 1996,*[18] in a symbolic response to growing dissatisfaction among Scots at the prevailing constitutional settlement, the British Conservative Government decided that the Stone should be kept in Scotland when not in use at coronations. On 3 July 1996, it was announced in the House of Commons that the Stone would be returned to Scotland, and on

15 November 1996, after a handover ceremony at the border between representatives of the Home Office and of the Scottish Office, it was transported to Edinburgh Castle. The Stone arrived in the Castle on 30 November 1996 and it remains alongside the crown jewels of Scotland (the Honours of Scotland) in the Crown Room. The handover occurred on St Andrew's Day, a day in honour of the patron Saint of Scotland, and Prince Andrew, Duke of York was the Queen's representative.

11.2 Cultural references

Stone of Scone has appeared in print, television and film media:

The Stone and its authenticity were the subject of the 1958 novel *The Stone*, by Scottish historical novelist Nigel Tranter. The Stone also appears in Tranter's novel *Macbeth the King*.

The Stone of Scone figures prominently in *Das Königsprojekt*, a 1974 novel by the German writer Carl Amery.

The return of the Stone of Scone to Scotland is documented in the Scottish Gaelic song "Òran na Cloiche" ("Song of the Stone"), covered by artists such as Kathleen MacInnes and Mànran.

In the episode "Pendragon", of the *Gargoyles* television series, King Arthur arrives in London and encounters the Stone of Destiny at Westminster Abbey. The Stone tells Arthur that he must prove himself once more worthy of Excalibur, and sends him and his "squire"—the London Clan gargoyle Griff—to New York to complete the task. The story is expanded in the follow-up *Gargoyles* SLG comics.

In 1996 Trilobyte released the game *Clandestiny*, in which the ultimate goal is to find the Stone of Scone and return it to its proper place.

In the two-part series finale of the *Hamish Macbeth* TV series, which aired in 1997, a millionaire is searching for the real Stone, as the one in Westminster Abbey is a fake. Hamish (Robert Carlyle) leads a posse on a trek to rescue their friend and save the Stone.

In a 1997 episode of the television series *Highlander*, the 1950 return was adapted, with the characters Duncan MacLeod (Adrian Paul), Hugh Fitzcairn (Roger Daltrey) and Amanda Darieux (Elizabeth Gracen) stealing the stone for various reasons.

Terry Pratchett's 1999 Discworld novel, *The Fifth Elephant*, is centred around the theft of a Dwarfish coronation seat, which is made from hardened bread and called the Scone of Stone.

In Patricia Kennealy Morrison's science-fantasy series *The Keltiad*, the 1986 novel *The Throne of Scone* describes a stone that has been transmuted into a throne.

The Stone is referred to in Derek Webb's comedy play *Bringing Back the Bluestones*, in which a Welsh group decide to emulate the return of the Stone of Scone to Scotland by demanding the return of the Bluestones from Stonehenge to Pembrokeshire.

The 2005 *Doctor Who* short story "Set in Stone" features the Doctor, Ian Chesterton, and Barbara Wright stealing the stone.

In 2000, a bilingual BBC film (English and Scottish Gaelic) *Interrogation of a Highand Lass/An Ceasnachadh* was released. The plot is about the 1950 liberation of the stone from Westminster Abbey, in which Matheson is played by Kathleen MacInnes.

In October 2008, a feature film called *Stone of Destiny*, based on the theft of the Stone, was released. The film was written and directed by Charles Martin Smith, and produced by Rob Merilees and William Vince. The role of the Scottish nationalist politician John MacCormick was played by Robert Carlyle.

In the 2010 film *The King's Speech*, Australian speech therapist Lionel Logue sits on the coronation throne to provoke King George VI into talking. In the ensuing argument, the king refers to the Stone of Scone.

The 2011 Jeanette Baker novel *Legacy* is a fictional account of the original Stone of Scone being hidden, while a replica is taken to Westminster Abbey.

In one adventure of *Solar Pons*, the Sherlock Holmes pastiche created by August Derleth, a Scottish nationalist steals the Stone from Westminster Abbey in 1935. The fictional event was first published in "The Return of Solar Pons" in 1958.

11.3 See also

- Stone of Jacob
- Edward Faraday Odlum
- · History of Scotland
- Prince's Stone
- Duke's Chair
- Stones of Mora
- Lia Fáil
- Omphalos

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- [4] Petrie, George (1839). "On the History and Antiquities of Tara Hill". The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy: (Royal Irish Academy) 18: 159–162.
- [5] David Lister (June 15, 2008). "Stone of Destiny a 'fake to dupe invading English', Abbot of Scone hid real stone from Edward I, says Salmond". *The Times*. The stone, said to have been used in the coronation of early Scottish monarchs and in Biblical times by Jacob as a pillow, is one of the earliest symbols of Scottish nationhood and has been an emblem of strained relations with England ever since it was stolen by Edward I in 1296. ... He said that monks at Scone Abbey had probably duped the English into believing that they had stolen the stone when, in fact, they took a replica.
- [6] Andree, Paul H. *Israelology The Birthright, House of Israel, Kingdom, and Sons of God*, Paul H. Andree, publ. (2008) pp. 158-164
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- [17] Richard Blystone (15 November 1996). "Scotland's 'Stone of Scone' finds its way home". CNN. Retrieved 30 August 2014.
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11.5 Further reading

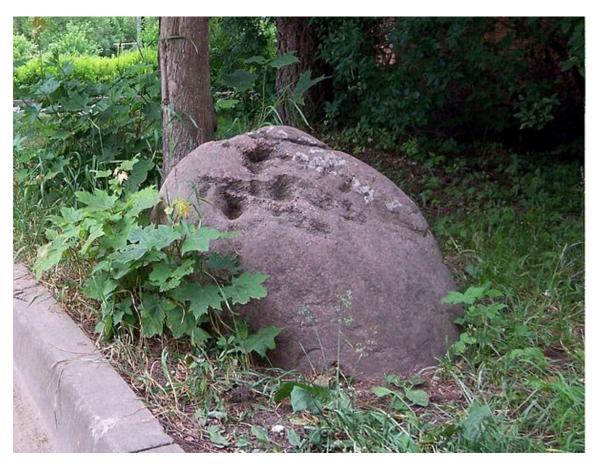
• No Stone Unturned: The Story of the Stone of Destiny, Ian R. Hamilton, Victor Gollancz and also Funk and Wagnalls, 1952, 1953, hardcover, 191 pages, An account of the return of the stone to Scotland in 1950 (older, but more available, look on ABE)

- *Taking of the Stone of Destiny*, Ian R. Hamilton, Seven Hills Book Distributors, 1992, hardcover, ISBN 0-948403-24-1 (modern reprint,)
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- *The Stone of Destiny: Symbol of Nationhood* by David Breeze, Chief Inspector of Ancient Monuments, and Graeme Munro, Chief Executive, Historic Scotland; Published by *Historic Scotland* 1997: ISBN 1-900168-44-8

11.6 External links

- Skene, William Forbes (1869). *The Coronation Stone*. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas. Retrieved 2014-10-09.
- Highlights: The Stone of Destiny Edinburgh Castle website
- The Stone of Destiny, sacred kingship in the 21st century

Sledovik



Sledovik Stone from Mendeleevo, Russia

Sledovik (Следовик, in Russian literally – a Footprint Stone) is a most widespread type of sacred stones, venerated in Slavic (Russian, Belarussian, Ukrainian) and Uralic (Karela,*[1] Merya*[2]) pagan practices. These are big stones, usually granite boulders of glacier origin, with hollows in them, that frequently bear traces of processing (seem to be artificially deepened and/or widened), and in some cases resemble foot traces, similar to those that might be left by a bare foot on a soft clay-like surface (hence the name). It is not completely clear if the stones were selected for veneration because the hollows resembled foot traces, or whether the hollows were processed to resemble footprints; most probably both interpretations are at least partly applicable.*[3]

Sometimes it is hard to draw a line between the Sledovik stone and the so-called **Chashechnik stone** (Чашечник, literally – a cup-Stone), as the only difference between these two is that a typical "cup" hollow does not necessarily need to resemble a trace of a foot. Most probably, both types of stones served the same ritual function, and form a continuum of shapes and modifications.

The majority of Sledovik stones have legends associated with them. In modern, Christian (or post-Christian) world the majority of these legends say that it was a foot of Christ (alternatively, Virgin Mary, or one of the Saints) that left the trace on the stone. *[4] In some cases, however, the trace is associated with the Devil, and the stones are considered impure, and harmful.



An Icon from Pochaiv Lavra with Virgin Mary leaving her trace on a stone

It is assumed that in the past these stones were used as pagan shrines. It is however unlikely they served as altars, and were used for bloody sacrifices. Rather, more probably, rain water and dew that accumulated in these hollows, was considered sacred, or blessed, and was used in some kinds of rituals.*[5] Some of these rituals are still preserved till modern days: thus in Pochaiv Lavra local Sledovik, re-interpreted as a place of epiphany of Virgin Mary, is venerated as one of the most important relics of the monastery; pilgrims are allowed to drink water that was poured in the footprint, and which thus is considered to become blessed.*[6] Those Sledovik and Cup Stones that are located in the wild, but relatively accessible, are in some cases also venerated by the local population, either in the christianized interpretation, or in "alternative", semi-pagan, style. People would usually come to the stones, and leave there food, sweets, icons, or burn church candles. Wish trees can be frequently found near such stones.

12.1 Notable Sledovik and Cup Stones

- Gus stone from the Golosov Ravine in Kolomenskoe, Moscow
- Stone in the shrine of Pochaiv Lavra, associated with Virgin Mary
- Sledovik in Pavlovo-Obnorskiy Monastery

12.2 See also

• Sin-Kamen – a simpler type of Slavic/Ugric sacred stone

12.3 References

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12.4 External links

• Sacred stones of Belarus

Lia Fáil



The Lia Fáil at Tara

The **Lia Fáil** (Irish pronunciation: [ˌl^ji:ə ˈfɔːl^j], meaning Stone of Destiny), not be confused with the Stone of Scone, is a stone at the Inauguration Mound (Irish: *an Forrad*) on the Hill of Tara in County Meath, Ireland, which served as the coronation stone for the High Kings of Ireland. It is also known as the Coronation Stone of Tara.*[1] In legend, all of the kings of Ireland were crowned on the stone up to Muirchertach mac Ercae c. AD 500.

13.1 Mythical origin

There are several different, and conflicting, legends in Irish mythology describing how the Lia Fáil is said to have been brought to Ireland.*[2] The Lebor Gabala, dating to the eleventh century, states that it was brought in antiquity by the semi-divine race known as the Tuatha Dé Danann. The Tuatha Dé Danann had travelled to the "Northern Isles" where they learned many skills and magic in its four cities Falias, Gorias, Murias and Findias. From there

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they travelled to Ireland bringing with them a treasure from each city – the four legendary treasures of Ireland. From Falias came the *Lia Fáil*. The other three treasures are the Claíomh Solais or Sword of Victory, the Sleá Bua or Spear of Lugh and the Coire Dagdae or The Dagda's Cauldron.

Some Scottish chroniclers, such as John of Fordun and Hector Boece from the thirteenth century, treat the Lia Fáil the same as the Stone of Scone in Scotland.*[1] According to this account the Lia Fáil left Tara in AD 500 when the High King of Ireland Murtagh MacEirc loaned it to his great-uncle, Fergus (later known as Fergus the Great) for the latter's coronation in Scotland. Fergus's sub-kingdom, Dalriada, had by this time expanded to include the north-east part of Ulster and parts of western Scotland. Not long after Fergus's coronation in Scotland, he and his inner circle were caught in a freak storm off the County Antrim coast in which all perished. The stone remained in Scotland which is why Murtagh MacEirc is recorded in history as the last Irish King to be crowned on it.

However, historian William Forbes Skene commented: "It is somewhat remarkable that while the Scottish legend brings the stone at Scone from Ireland, the Irish legend brings the stone at Tara from Scotland." *[2]

13.2 Mythical powers

The Lia Fáil was thought to be magical: when the rightful High King of Ireland put his feet on it, the stone was said to roar in joy.*[1] The stone is also credited with the power to rejuvenate the king and also to endow him with a long reign. According to Lebor Gabála Érenn, Cúchulainn split it with his sword when it failed to cry out under his protégé, Lugaid Riab nDerg - from then on it never cried out again, except under Conn of the Hundred Battles.*[3]

13.3 Inis Fáil

It is from this stone the Tuatha Dé Danann metonymically named Ireland **Inis Fáil** (*inis* meaning island), and from this 'Fáil' became an ancient name for Ireland.*[1] Fái in Irish means several things like hedge, enclosure or king, ruler. In this respect, therefore, *Lia Fáil* came to mean 'Stone of Ireland'. *Inisfail* appears as a synonym for *Erin* in some Irish romantic and nationalist poetry in English in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; Aubrey Thomas de Vere's 1863 poem *Inisfail* is an example.

The term *Fianna Fáil* ("the Fianna, warriors, or army of Ireland"; sometimes rendered "the soldiers of destiny") has been used as a sobriquet for the Irish Volunteers; on the cap badge of the Irish Army; in the opening line of the Irish-language version of Amhrán na bhFiann, the Irish national anthem; and as the name of the Fianna Fáil political party, one of the main parties in Ireland.*[4]

13.4 Vandalism

Sometime in June 2012, the stone was vandalised. The stone was damaged in 11 places by a hammer.*[5] It was vandalised again in May 2014 when green and red paint was poured on the stone covering at least 50% of its surface.*[6]*[7]

13.5 See also

- Omphalos
- Stone of Scone the "Stone of Destiny" for coronation of Scottish, English, and British monarchs.
- Stones of Mora where the Swedish kings were elected.
- Prince's Stone where the princes of Carantania and dukes of Carinthia were installed.
- Sword in the stone (King Arthur) also revealed the rightful king.
- Blarney Stone tourist attraction said to endow those kissing it with the "gift of the gab".
- De Shíl Chonairi Móir

13.6. REFERENCES 47

13.6 References

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13.8 External links

• The History of Ireland, Geoffrey Keating, pp205-212

Thunderstone (folklore)

Throughout Africa, Europe, Asia, and Polynesia flint arrowheads and axes turned up by farmer's plows are considered to have fallen from the sky. They are often thought to be thunderbolts and are called "thunderstones". It was not until travellers returned from far-away places where these implements were in actual use that the origins of these objects became known. Even then, these travelers' tales received little popular credence.*[1]

14.1 Thunderstone folklore



Axe heads found at a 2700 BC Neolithic manufacture site in Switzerland, arranged in the various stages of production from left to right.

In Scandinavia thunderstones were frequently worshiped as family gods who kept off spells and witchcraft. Beer was poured over them as an offering and they were sometimes anointed with butter. In Switzerland the owner of a thunderstone whirls it, on the end of a thong, three times round his head, and throws it at the door of his dwelling at the approach of a storm to prevent lightning from striking the house. In Italy they are hung around children's necks to protect them from illness and to ward off the Evil eye. In Roman times they were sewn inside dog-collars along with a little piece of coral to keep the dogs from going mad. In Sweden they offer protection from elves. In the French Alps they protect sheep, while elsewhere in France they are thought to ease Childbirth. In Burma they are used as a cure and preventative for appendicitis. In Japan they cure boils and ulcers. In Malay and Sumatra they are used to sharpen the kris, are considered very lucky objects, and are credited with being touchstones for gold. Among the Slavs they cure warts on man and beast, and during Passion Week they have the property to reveal hidden treasure.*

14.1.1 Further examples of thunderstone folklore

In the British Isles some idea of their original use is retained, and they are often referred to as elf-shot, fairy-shot, or elf-arrows, and are said to have been shot by the fairies at a person or animal to bewitch them. On the other hand, they are thought, for the most part, to protect the possessor from these little people. The presence of flint instruments found in British cinerary urns of the Roman Era is explained by two theories: 1) they were used by the mourners to lacerate themselves; 2)flints (like all fire-producing stones) are potent magic for preventing the return of the dead. In Ireland flint stones are soaked in water to make a medicine which is good for man or beast. Mounted in silver they are worn as protection against elf-shot. In North Carolina and Alabama there is a belief that flint stones placed in the



Picture of two Lower Paleolithic bifaces

fire will keep hawks from molesting the chickens, a belief which probably stems from the European idea that elf-shot protect domestic animals. In Brazil flint is used as a divining stone for gold, treasure and water.*[1]

During the Middle Ages many of these well-wrought stones were venerated as weapons, which during the "war in heaven" had been used in driving forth Satan and his hosts; hence in the eleventh century an Emperor of the East sent to the Emperor of the West a "heaven axe"; and in the twelfth century a Bishop of Rennes asserted the value of thunder-stones as a divinely-appointed means of securing success in battle, safety on the sea, security against thunder, and immunity from unpleasant dreams. Even as late as the seventeenth century a French ambassador brought a stone hatchet, which still exists in the museum at Nancy, as a present to the Prince-Bishop of Verdun, and claimed for it health-giving virtues.*[2]

14.1.2 Native American thunderstone folklore

The flint was an object of veneration by most American Indian tribes. According to the Pawnee Origin myth, stone weapons and implements were given to man by the Morning Star. Among the K'iche' people of Guatemala, there is a myth that a flint fell from the sky and broke into 1600 pieces, each of which became a god. Tohil, the God who gave them fire, is still represented as flint. This myth provides a parallel to the almost universal belief in the thunderstone, and reminds us that Jupiter (mythology) was once worshipped in the form of a flint stone. The Cherokee shaman invokes a flint when he is about to scarify a patient prior to applying his medicine. Among the Pueblos we have the Flint Societies which, in most tribes, were primarily concerned with weather and witchcraft, but sometimes had to do with war and medicine.*[1]

14.1.3 Fossil echinoids as thunderstones

In many parts of southern England until the middle of the nineteenth century, another name commonly used for fossil Echinoids was 'thunderstone'. This was a name that in all likelihood formed part of another folk tradition that was almost certainly brought to Britain by Danish and Anglo-Saxon invaders more than 1500 years ago. In 1677 Dr. Robert Plot, the first keeper of the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, published his classic book *The Natural History of Oxfordshire*. Plot recorded that in Oxfordshire what we now call fossil echinoids were called thunderstones, as they were thought to have descended from the heavens during a thunderstorm. The St. Peter's Church in Linkenholt, England, was built in 1871 near the location of the old St. Peter's, which had stood for nearly 700 years. The 1871 version of the church included fossil echinoids built into the walls surrounding the windows, a style adopted from the original. This implies that Thunderstone folklore was retained for at least 700 years in England, and had its roots in pagan folklore.* [2]

14.2 Decline of thunderstone mythology

Andrew Dickson White described the discovery of the true origin of thunderstones as a "line of observation and thought... fatal to the theological view." In the last years of the sixteenth century Michael Mercati tried to prove that the "thunder-stones" were weapons or implements of early races of men; but for some reason his book was not published until the following century, when other thinkers had begun to take up the same idea. In 1723 Antoine Laurent de Jussieu addressed the French Academy on "The Origin and Uses of Thunder-stones". He showed that recent travellers from various parts of the world had brought a number of weapons and other implements of stone to France, and that they were essentially similar to what in Europe had been known as "thunderstones". A year later this fact was firmly embedded in the minds of French scientists by the Jesuit Joseph-Francois Lafitau, who published a work showing the similarity between the customs of aborigines then existing in other lands and those of the early inhabitants of Europe. So began, in these works of Jussieu and Lafitau, the science of Ethnology. It was more than 100 years later, after the French Revolution of 1830, that the political climate in Europe was free enough of religious sentiment for archaeological discoveries to be dispassionately investigated and the conclusion reached that human existence spanned a much greater period of time than any theologian had dreamt of.*[3]

14.2.1 Boucher de Perthes

In 1847, a man previously unknown to the world at large, Boucher de Perthes, published at Paris the first volume of work on *Celtic and Antediluvian Antiquities*, and in this he showed engravings of typical flint implements and weapons, of which he had discovered thousands upon thousands in the high drift beds near Abbeville, in northern France. So far as France was concerned, he was met at first by what he calls "a conspiracy of silence," and then by a contemptuous opposition among orthodox scientists, led by Elie de Beaumont.

In 1863 the thunderstone myth was further discredited by Charles Lyell in his book *Geological Evidences of the Antiquity of Man*. Lyell had previously opposed the new ideas about human antiquity, and his changing sides gave further force to the scientific evidence.*[3]

14.3 References

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- [3] White, Andrew D. A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology in Christendom. New York: George Braziller, 1955. 266-283

14.3. REFERENCES 51



Boucher de Perthes

Gjöll

In Norse mythology, **Gjöll** (Old Norse meaning "resounding") is one of the eleven rivers traditionally associated with the Élivágar, according to *Gylfaginning*, originating from the wellspring Hvergelmir in Niflheim, flowing through Ginnungagap, and thence into the worlds of existence. In Hel, Gjöll is the river that flows closest to the gate of the underworld and is spanned by the bridge Gjallarbrú, which was crossed by Hermód during his quest to retrieve Baldr from the land of the dead. It parallels similar mythological rivers from Indo-European cultures like the Greek Styx. The river is said to be freezing cold and have knives flowing through it.

Gjöll is also the name of the rock to which Fenrir the wolf is bound.

Batrachite

Batrachites were gemstones, supposedly found in frogs, to which ancient physicians and naturalists attributed the virtue of resisting poison. They resembled frogs in color.

Toadstone is a similar mythical stone, supposed to be found in toads.

The term **batrachite** is also used for a batrachian (or frog) fossil.

16.1 References

- 1. This article incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chambers, Ephraim, ed. (1728). "*article name needed". *Cyclopædia, or an Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences* (first ed.). James and John Knapton, *et al.*
- 1. "Batrachite". Oxford English Dictionary. URL accessed 2006-03-05.

Aglaophotis

Aglaophotis is an herb mentioned occasionally in works on occultism. References to Aglaophotis and to Olieribos (both of which are said to be magical herbs) are made in the Simon *Necronomicon*.

17.1 Historic uses

The Greek doctor Dioscorides named Aglaophotis as a member of the peony family, Paeoniaceae. It has been speculated that the species *paeonia officinalis*, or the European peony, is the source of Aglaophotis, but there is little evidence for this theory to be proved.

According to Dioscorides, peony is used for warding off demons, witchcraft, and fever. This is at odds with the presentation in the Necronomicon, in which it is used to call upon dark forces.

17.2 References in popular media

References to Aglaophotis are present in the video games *Silent Hill* and *Silent Hill* 3. In the former, the substance appears as a red liquid used for exorcism, while in the latter, where it serves a similar purpose, it appears in the form of a red capsule.

Aglaophotis is also referenced in the video game *Amnesia: The Dark Descent*, where a potion recipe which demands Aglaophotis as an ingredient is mentioned.

Fern flower

The **fern flower** is a magic flower in Slavic mythology (Belarusian: *nanapaць-кветка*, Polish: *kwiat paproci*, Russian: *цветок папоротника*, Ukrainian: цвіт-папороть), in Baltic mythology (Lithuanian: *paparčio žiedas*, Latvian: *papardes zieds*) and in Estonian mythology (Estonian: *sõnajalaõis*).

18.1 Tradition

According to the myth, this flower blooms for a very short time on the eve of the Summer solstice (celebrated on June 21 or sometimes July 7) The flower brings fortune to the person who finds it. In various versions of the tale, the fern flower brings luck, wealth, or the ability to understand animal speech. However, the flower is closely guarded by evil spirits and anyone who finds the flower will have access to earthly riches, which have never benefited anyone, so the decision to pick the flower or leave it alone is left up to the individual.

18.2 Traditions in the Baltics and Finland

18.2.1 Baltic and Estonian-Finnish tradition

In the Estonian, Lithuanian and Latvian tradition, the fern flower is supposed to appear only on the night of 23 to 24 June during the celebration of the summer solstice which is called Jāṇi in Latvia, Joninės or Rasos in Lithuania, Jaaniõhtu or Jaaniöö in Estonia and juhannus in Finland. The celebration has pre-Christian origins. In addition to the idea that the finder of the fern flower will become rich or happy, here, the fern flower is sometimes perceived a symbol of fertility. During this supposedly magical night, young couples go into the woods "seeking the fern flower", which is most commonly read as a euphemism for sex. Sex can lead to pregnancy; the child could be thought of as the fern flower.

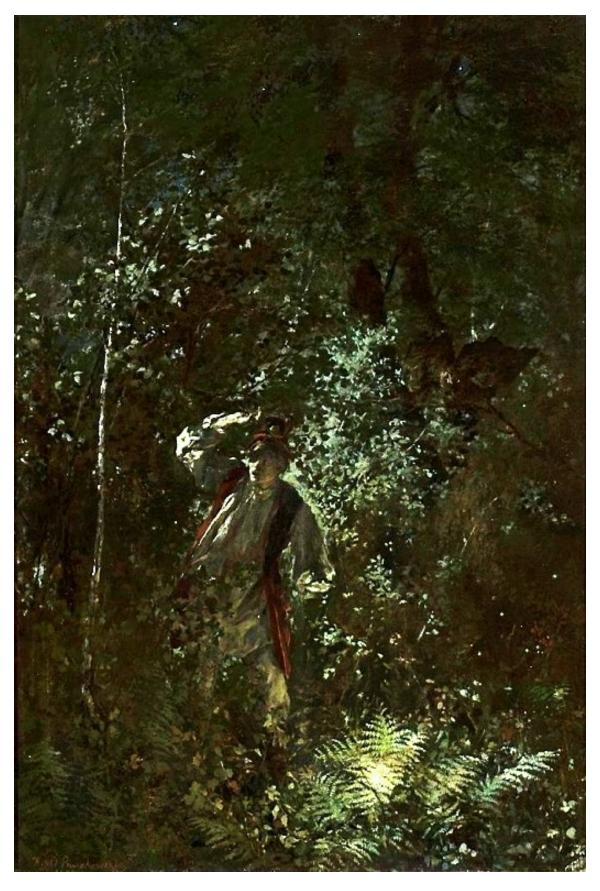
Referring to this tradition, Papardes zieds ("fern flower" in Latvian) is the name of an NGO in Latvia that promotes education about matters pertaining to sexuality, fertility, and relationships.

18.3 Slavic Tradition

18.3.1 Russian, Ukrainian, Belarus and Polish tradition

In Russia, Ukraine, Belarus and Poland, the holiday is practiced on the eve of Ivan Kupala Day.*[1] Young girls wear wreaths in their hair and couples go into the woods searching for the fern flower. When they come out of the woods, if the male is wearing the girl's wreath, it means the couple is engaged to be married.

According to folklore, the flower is Chervona Ruta. The flower is yellow, but according to legend, it turns red on the eve of Ivan Kupala Day.



Fern flower (1875) by Witold Pruszkowski, National Museum in Warsaw

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18.4 Blooming ferns



A "fertile frond" of a true fern is not really a flower at all.

In fact, ferns are not flowering plants. However some experts think that the flowering fern myth has roots in reality. In the past, the grouping of plants was not as exact as modern taxonomic ones. Numerous flowering plants resemble ferns, or have fern-like foliage, and some of them indeed open flowers during night time. [2] Also, certain true ferns, e.g., *Osmunda regalis* have sporangia in tight clusters (termed "fertile fronds"), which may appear in flower-like clusters, and as a result, they are commonly known as "flowering ferns".

18.5 See also

• Blue Flower

18.6 References

- [1] Midsummer celebration (Celebration of Ivan Kupala Day)
- [2] "Saint John's Wreaths and Fern Flower" (Polish)

Hungry grass

In Irish mythology, **hungry grass** (Irish: *féar gortach*; also known as **fairy grass**) is a patch of cursed grass. Anyone walking on it was doomed to perpetual and insatiable hunger.

Harvey suggests that the hungry grass is cursed by the proximity of an unshriven corpse (the fear gorta).*[1] William Carleton's stories suggest that faeries plant the hungry grass.*[2] According to Harvey this myth may relate to beliefs formed in the Irish Potato Famine of the 1840s.*[1] In Margaret McDougall's letters the phrase "hungry grass" is - by analogy to the myth - used to describe hunger pains.*[3]

An alternative version of the hungry grass story relates that anyone walking through it is struck by temporary hunger; to safely cross through one must carry a bit of food to eat along the way (such as a sandwich or several crackers), and some beer.

19.1 See also

• Hungry ghost

19.2 References

- [1] Harvey, Steenie. Twilight places: Ireland's enduring fairy lore. World and I, March 1998, v13 n3.
- [2] Carleton, William. Phelim O'toole's Courtship and Other Stories
- [3] McDougall, Margaret. The Letters of "Norah" on Her Tour Through Ireland

Lotus tree

The **lotus tree** (Greek: λωτός, $l\bar{ο}tόs$) is a plant that occurs in stories from Greek and Roman mythology.

The lotus tree is mentioned in Homer's *Odyssey*, the lotus tree bore a fruit that caused a pleasant drowsiness and was the only food of an island people called the Lotophagi or Lotus-eaters. When they are of the lotus tree they would forget their friends and homes and would lose their desire to return to their native land in favor of living in idleness.*[1] Botanical candidates for the lotus tree include the date-plum (*Diospyros lotus*), which is a sub-evergreen tree native to Africa that grows to about 25 feet bearing yellowish green flowers,*[2] as well as Ziziphus lotus, a plant with an edible fruit closely related to the jujube family native to North Africa and the islands in the Gulf of Gabes such as Jerba.

In Ovid's *Metamorphoses*,*[3] the nymph Lotis was the beautiful daughter of Neptune, the god of water and the sea. In order to flee the violent attention of Priapus, she invoked the assistance of the gods, who answered her prayers by turning her into a lotus tree.*[4]

The Book of Job has two lines (40:21-22), with the Hebrew word Hebrew: צָּאָלִים, *[5] which appear nowhere else in the bible. A common translation has been *lotus trees* since the publication of the Revised Version. However it is sometimes rendered simply as "shady trees". *[6]

20.1 See also

- Lotus-eaters
- Lotus (genus)
- Lote tree
- Ziziphus lotus
- Nymphaea lotus

20.2 References

- [1] Dictionary of Phrase and Fable, page 526, by Ebenezer Cobham Brewer
- [2] John Marius Wilson, The rural cyclopedia: or a general dictionary of agriculture, and ..., Volume 2
- [3] Elizabeth Washington Wirt, Flora's dictionary
- [4] Richard Folkard, Plant lore, legends, and lyrics
- [5] Hebrew word #6628 in Strong's Concordance
- [6] Barnes, Albert (1857). Notes, critical, illustrative, and practical, on the book of Job with a new translation, and an introductory dissertation II. New York: Leavitt and Allen. p. 276. Retrieved 2014-09-15., or html.

Moly (herb)

Moly (Greek: μῶλυ, [môly]) is a magical herb mentioned in book 10 of Homer's *Odyssey*.*[1]

In the story, Hermes gave this herb to Odysseus to protect him from Circe's magic when he went to her home to rescue his friends.*[2] These friends came together with him from the island Aiolos after they escaped from the Cyclops. "The plant 'moly' of which Homer speaks; this plant, it is said, had grown from the blood of the Giant Picolous killed in the isle of Kirke; it has a white flower; the ally of Kirke who killed Picolous was Helios (the Sun); the combat was hard (Greek malos) from which came the name of this plant".*[3] Homer also describes Moly by saying "The root was black, while the flower was as white as milk; the gods call it Moly, Dangerous for a mortal man to pluck from the soil, but not for the deathless gods. All lies within their power".*[4]

There has been much controversy as to the identification. Philippe Champault decides in favour of the *Peganum harmala* (of the order Rutaceae),*[5] the Syrian or African rue (Greek πἦγανον), from the husks of which the vegetable alkaloid harmaline is extracted. The flowers are white with green stripes. Victor Bérard relying partly on a Semitic root,*[6] prefers the *Atriplex halimus* (atriplex, a Latin form of Greek ἀτράφαξυς, and ἄλιμος, marine), order Chenopodiaceae, a herb or low shrub common on the south European coasts. These identifications are noticed by R. M. Henry,*[7] who illustrates the Homeric account by passages in the Paris and Leiden magical papyri, and argues that moly is probably a magical name, derived perhaps from Phoenician or Egyptian sources, for a plant which cannot be certainly identified. He shows that the "difficulty of pulling up" the plant is not a merely physical one, but rather connected with the peculiar powers claimed by magicians.*[7] In Tennyson's *The Lotos-Eaters*, the moly is coupled with the amaranth ("propt on beds of amaranth and moly").*[2] Carl Linnaeus referenced the mythical plant with *Allium moly*, the scientific name for golden garlic, though of course the perianth of this species is yellow, not white.

Medical historians have speculated that the transformation to pigs was not intended literally but refers to anticholinergic intoxication.*[8] Symptoms include amnesia, hallucinations, and delusions. The description of "moly" fits the snowdrop, a flower of the region that contains galantamine, which is an anticholinesterase and can therefore counteract anticholinergics.

21.1 Notes

- [1] Chisholm 1911, p. 681 cites: Homer, Odyssey, x. 302–306.
- [2] Chisholm 1911, p. 681.
- [3] HELIUS: Greek Titan god of the sun
- [4] Homer & Butler 1898, Book X.
- [5] Chisholm 1911, p. 681 cites: Phéniciens et Grecs en Italie d'après l'Odyssée (1906), pp. 504 seq.
- [6] Chisholm 1911, p. 681 cites: Victor Bérard Les Phéniciens et l'Odyssee, ii. 288 seq.
- [7] Chisholm 1911, p. 681 cites: R. M. Henry Class. Rev. (Dec. 1906), p. 434.
- [8] Andreas Plaitakis & Roger C. Duvoisin (1983). "Homer's moly identified as *Galanthus nivalis* L.: physiologic antidote to stramonium poisoning". *Clinical Neuropharmacology* 6 (1): 1–5. doi:10.1097/00002826-198303000-00001. PMID 6342763.

21.2 References

• Homer; Butler, Samuel (1898), The Odyssey, Book X

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21.2. REFERENCES 63



Snowdrop, perhaps the herb moly

Raskovnik



Razkovniche is the Bulgarian-language name for the real plant Marsilea quadrifolia, which shares some features with the legendary raskovnik.

The **raskovnik** or **razkovniche** (Serbian Cyrillic and Macedonian: расковник, Bulgarian: разковниче, pronounced [res'kovnitʃɛ], Russian: разрыв-трава, Polish: *rozryw*) is a magical herb in Slavic (Bosnian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Macedonian, Montenegrin, Serbian, Slovene, Russian) and Romanian (iarba fiarelor) mythology. According to lore, the raskovnik has the magical property to unlock or uncover anything that is locked or closed. However, legends claim it is notoriously difficult to recognize the herb, and reputedly only certain chthonic animals are able to identify it.*[1]*[2]*[3]

22.1. NAMES 65

22.1 Names

The herb is known by a multitude of names among the South Slavs, and the names vary significantly by region. While *razkovniche* and *raskovnik* are the customary names in Bulgarian and Serbian respectively and the root is also preserved in the Leskovac dialect as *raskov*, in some parts of Macedonia it is known as *ež trava* ("hedgehog grass"). In the vicinity of Bar (southeastern Montenegro), the term is *demir-bozan*, a Turkish borrowing meaning "iron breaker". In Syrmia, the plant is referred to as *špirgasta trava*, in Slavonia it is known as *zemaljski ključ* ("earth key"), and in Slovenia's Savinja Valley as *mavričin koren* ("rainbow root").*[3]

22.2 Description and properties

Traditionally, it is considered that few people, if any, could actually recognize the herb.*[4] However, in Bulgarian sources the raskovnik is sometimes described as a grass resembling a four-leaf clover. It grows in meadows and may be picked either while green and blooming or in hay, when it is already dry. While it is not necessarily rare, nor does it thrive only in remote locations, it is nevertheless impossible to recognize by the uninitiated.*[2] In the words of Serbian linguist and folklorist Vuk Stefanović Karadžić, "It is some (may be imaginary) grass for which it is thought that thanks to it (when brushed by it) every lock and every other closure would open by itself." *[5]

According to the legend, the raskovnik could unlock any gate or padlock, regardless of its size, material or key. It could also uncover treasures buried in the ground: in Bulgarian beliefs, it could split the ground at the place where a treasure lay so that people could locate it.*[1] In some regions of Serbia, the treasure itself was a black man in chains who requested that a raskovnik be brought to him. The raskovnik would break the chains and the man would disappear into the ground to be replaced by a cauldron filled with gold coins.*[3] Other supernatural properties attributed to the herb by Bulgarians include the alchemic ability to transmute iron into gold, the more general ability to make the one who picked it forever happy*[2] or wealthy.*[6] In some interpretations, the raskovnik is a wonderful plant that makes true whatever its owner desires.*[7]

22.3 Obtainment

The raskovnik is believed to have been sought after by treasure hunters, sorcerers and herbalists who desired its magic powers for personal benefit. In Serbia, it was believed that there exist certain treasures, such as the Treasure of Tsar Radovan, which could not be unlocked in any other way but employing a raskovnik.*[4]

As, according to Bulgarian mythology and some other traditions, tortoises were the only beings who knew the appearance of the herb and the location where it grows, such people would try to obtain the raskovnik by deceiving a tortoise. They would find a tortoise nesting site and hem it in with a fence while the tortoise is away. When it returns, the tortoise would be unable to access its eggs, so it would return with a raskovnik in order to breach the fence. Thus, the tortoise would reveal the herb and people would acquire it from the tortoise, which does not need it anymore.*[1]*[3]

While the tricking of a tortoise was the most popular method in Bulgarian mythology, in Dalmatia the legend refers to snakes,*[3] and among Serbs another version involves the locking of young hedgehogs in a box for their mother to unlock. In Serbia, one would also have to be quick to take the raskovnik, as the hedgehog would swallow it after use. In any case, turtles, snakes and hedgehogs are all animals with chthonic characteristics which were often variously associated with the underworld in South Slavic tradition.*[3]

Karadžić also mentions another Serbian method to obtain the raskovnik. He recorded a story from the town of Zemun about a merchant who desired to find the herb. The merchant locked an old woman into leg irons and let her wander in a field during the night; if the irons unlocked by themselves at a certain place, that would be a place where the raskovnik grows.*[4]

22.4 Metaphoric use

The legendary herb has entered the modern Bulgarian vocabulary as a metaphor for a magic key or a panacea in the wider sense. The phrase "to find the razkovniche" ("да намериш разковничето ""da namerish razkovnicheto") means to find the solution to a certain problem, usually a complex or difficult one.*[8] Razkovniche is also the

66 CHAPTER 22. RASKOVNIK



In some parts of Serbia, hedgehogs are believed to be animals capable of identifying the raskovnik and involuntarily assisting people in obtaining it.

common Bulgarian name for the plant European waterclover (*Marsilea quadrifolia*) which, in its appearance, has many similarities with the descriptions of the mythical raskovnik.*[9] In eastern Serbia, *raskovnik* also refers to a specific plant used in vernacular medicine, namely *Laserpitium siler*.*[3]

22.5 References

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- [2] Старева, Лилия (2007). Български магии и гадания (in Bulgarian). Труд. pp. 243–244. ISBN 978-954-528-772-5.
- [3] Раденковић, Љубинко (2000–2001). Расковник у кругу сличних биљака (in Serbian). Slavic Gate. Retrieved 24 August 2010.
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Haoma

Haoma is the Avestan language name of a plant and its divinity, both of which play a role in Zoroastrian doctrine and in later Persian culture and mythology. The Middle Persian form of the name is $h\bar{o}m$, which continues to be the name in Modern Persian, Pashto and other living Iranian languages.

Sacred *haoma* has its origins in Indo-Iranian religion and is the cognate of Vedic *soma*. For *haoma*'s relationship to Vedic *soma*, see comparison to *soma*.

23.1 Etymology

Both Avestan *haoma* and Sanskrit *soma* derived from proto-Indo-Iranian **sauma*. The linguistic root of the word *haoma*, *hu*-, and of *soma*, *su*-, suggests 'press' or 'pound'. (Taillieu, 2002)

23.2 As a plant

23.2.1 In the Avesta

The physical attributes, as described in the texts of the Avesta, include:

- the plant has stems, roots and branches (Yasna 10.5).
- it has a pliant *asu* (*Yasna* 9.16). The term *asu* is only used in conjunction with a description of *haoma*, and does not have an established translation. It refers to 'twigs' according to Dieter Taillieu, 'stalk' according to Robert Wasson, 'fibre' or 'flesh' according to Ilya Gershevitch, 'sprouts' according to Lawrence Heyworth Mills.
- it is tall (*Yasna* 10.21, *Vendidad* 19.19)
- it is fragrant (Yasna 10.4)
- it is golden-green (standard appellation, Yasna 9.16 et al.)
- it can be pressed (Yasna 9.1, 9.2)
- it grows on the mountains, 'swiftly spreading', 'apart on many paths' (*Yasna* 9.26, 10.3-4 et al.) 'to the gorges and abysses' (*Yasna* 10-11) and 'on the ranges' (*Yasna* 10.12)

The indirect attributes (i.e. as effects of its consumption) include:

- it furthers healing (*Yasna* 9.16-17, 9.19, 10.8, 10.9)
- it furthers sexual arousal (Yasna 9.13-15, 9.22)
- it is physically strengthening (*Yasna* 9.17, 9.22, 9.27)

- it stimulates alertness and awareness (Yasna 9.17, 9.22, 10.13)
- the mildly intoxicating extract can be consumed without negative side effects (Yasna 10.8).

• it is nourishing (Yasna 9.4, 10.20) and 'most nutritious for the soul' (Yasna 9.16).

23.2.2 In present-day Zoroastrianism

Many of the physical attributes as described in the texts of the Avesta coincide with the choice of plant used in present-day Zoroastrian practice. Although it cannot be ruled out that the plant, as it is used today, is a surrogate of the plant that was revered by ancient Zoroastrians, the choice of such a surrogate would presumably have been made to suit ancient practice. In present-day preparation of *parahaoma* (for details, see Ab-Zohr), ...

- the twigs are repeatedly pounded in the presence of a little water, which suggests ancient haoma was also water-soluble.
- the twigs have to be imported by Indian-Zoroastrians, who believe that they are, for climatic reasons, not obtainable on the Indian subcontinent.
- very small quantities are produced.

According to Falk, Parsi-Zoroastrians use a variant of ephedra, usually *Ephedra procera*, imported from the Hari River valley in Afghanistan. (Falk, 1989)

23.2.3 Botanic identification

Main article: Botanic identity of Soma-Haoma

Since the late 18th century, when Anquetil-Duperron and others made portions of the Avesta available to western scholarship, several scholars have sought a representative botanical equivalent of the *haoma* as described in the texts and as used in living Zoroastrian practice. Most of the proposals concentrated on either linguistic evidence or comparative pharmacology or reflected ritual use. Rarely were all three considered together, which usually resulted in such proposals being quickly rejected.

In the late 19th century, the highly conservative Zoroastrians of Yazd (Iran) were found to use Ephedra (*genus* Ephedra), which was locally known as *hum* or *homa* and which they exported to the Indian Zoroastrians. (Aitchison, 1888) The plant, as Falk also established, requires a cool and dry climate, i.e. it does not grow in India (which is either too hot or too humid or both) but thrives in central Asia. Later, it was discovered that a number of Iranian languages and Persian dialects have *hom* or similar terms as the local name for some variant of Ephedra. Considered together, the linguistic and ritual evidence appeared to conclusively establish that *haoma* was some variant of Ephedra.

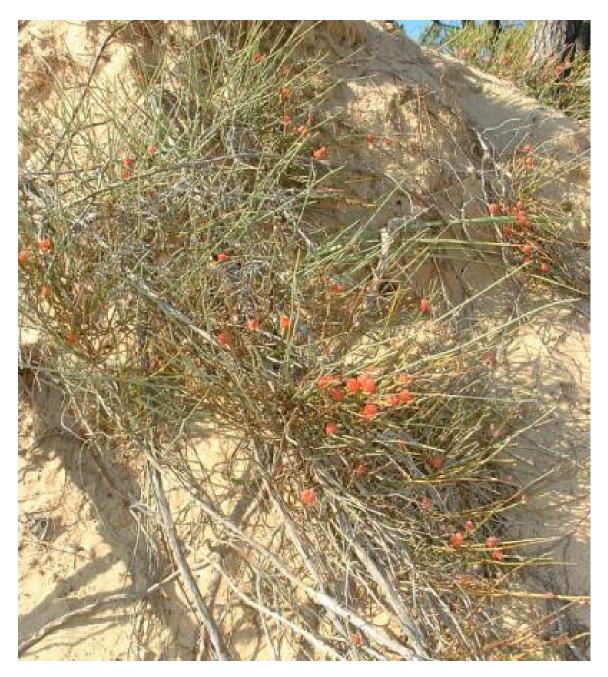
In the latter half of the 20th century, several studies attempted to establish *haoma* as a psychotropic substance, and based their arguments on the assumption that proto-Indo-Iranian *sauma was a hallucinogen. This assumption, which invariably relied on professed Vedic 'evidence' (*one* hymn of c. 120), was, as Falk (1989) and Houben (2003) would later establish, not supported by either the texts or by the observation of living practice. Moreover, the references to entheogenic properties were only in conjunction with a fermentation of the plant extract, which does not have enough time to occur in living custom.

In the conclusion of his observations on a 1999 Haoma-Soma workshop in Leiden, Jan E. M. Houben writes: "despite strong attempts to do away with Ephedra by those who are eager to see *sauma as a hallucinogen, its status as a serious candidate for the Rigvedic Soma and Avestan Haoma still stands" (Houben, 2003, 9/1a). This supports Falk, who in his summary noted that "there is no need to look for a plant other than Ephedra, the one plant used to this day by the Parsis." (Falk, 1989)

23.3 As a divinity

The Yazata *Haoma*, also known by the middle Persian name *Hōm Yazad*, is the epitome of the quintessence of the *haoma* plant, venerated in the *Hōm Yašt*, the hymns of *Yasna* 9-11.

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A representative of the genus Ephedra.

In those hymns, *Haoma* is said to appear before Zoroaster in the form of a "beautiful man" (this is the only anthropomorphic reference), who prompts him to gather and press *haoma* for the purification of the waters (see Aban). *Haoma* is 'righteous' and 'furthers righteousness', is 'wise' and 'gives insight' (Yasna 9.22). *Haoma* was the first priest, installed by Ahura Mazda with the sacred girdle *aiwiyanghana* (*Yasna* 9.26) and serves the Amesha Spentas in this capacity (*Yasht* 10.89). "Golden-green eyed" *Haoma* was the first to offer up *haoma*, with a "star-adorned, spirit-fashioned mortar," and is the guardian of "mountain plants upon the highest mountain peak." (*Yasht* 10.90)

Haoma is associated with the Amesha Spenta *Vohu Manah* (Avestan, middle Persian *Vahman* or *Bahman*), the guardian of all animal creation. *Haoma* is the only divinity with a *Yasht* who is not also represented by a day-name dedication in the Zoroastrian calendar. Without such a dedication, *Haoma* has ceased to be of any great importance within the Zoroastrian hierarchy of angels.

23.4 In tradition and folklore

In Ferdowsi's Shahnameh, which incorporates stories from the Avesta (with due acknowledgement), Hom appears as a hermit, dweller of the mountains, incredibly strong. He binds *Afrasiab* (middle Persian, Avestan: "the fell Turanian *Frangrasyan*", *Yasna* 11.7) with the sacred girdle, and drags him from deep within the earth (named the *hankana* in Avestan, *hang-e-Afrasiab* in middle Persian) where *Afrasaib* has his "metal-encircled" kingdom that is immune to mortal attack.

In another episode, Vivaŋhat is the first of the humans to press *haoma*, for which Hom rewards him with a son, Jamshid. *Yasna* 9.3-11 has Zoroaster asking the divinity who (first) prepared *haoma* and for what reward, to which Haoma recalls Vivahngvant (Persian: Vivaŋhat) to whom Yima Xshaeta (Jamshid) is born; Athwya (Abtin) to whom Thraetaona (Feredon) is born; and Thrita to whom Urvaxshaya and Keresaspa (Karshasp and Garshasp) are born. The latter two are also characters in priestly heroic tradition, and among conservative Zoroastrians of the hereditary priesthood, Haoma is still prayed to by those wanting children (in particular, honorable sons who will also become priests). The account given in the Indian Vedas closely agrees with that of the Iranian Avesta. The first preparers of Soma are listed as Vivasvat, who is the father of Yama and Manu, and Trita Aptya.

A legendary 'White Hom' grows at the junction of the "great gathering place of the waters" and a mighty river. According to the *Zadspram*, at the end of time, when Ormuzd triumphs over Ahriman, the followers of the good religion will share a *parahom* made from the 'White Hom', and so attain immortality for their resurrected bodies. (*Zadspram* 35.15)

James Darmesteter, in his 1875 thesis on the mythology of the Avesta, speculating on the Parsi belief that Ephedra twigs do not decay, wrote: "it comprises the power of life of all the vegetable kingdom... both the ved and the avesta call it the 'king of healing herbs'... the zarathustri scriptures say that homa is of two kinds, the white haoma and the painless tree. Could it be that soma is the tree of life? the giver of immortality?"

The Indian-Zoroastrian belief mentioned above also manifests itself in the present-day Zoroastrian practice of administering a few drops of *parahaoma* to the new-born or dying (see Ab-Zohr). The belief also appears to be very old, and be cross-cultural. As Falk, recalling Aurel Stein discovery of Ephedra plants interred at 1st century CE Tarim Basin burial sites, notes: "an imperishable plant, representing or symbolizing the continuity of life, is most appropriate to burial rites" (Falk, 1998).

It is possible that the *barsom* (Var. Avestan *baresman*) bundle of twigs was originally a bundle of Haoma stalks. The Haoma divinity is identified with priesthood (see Haoma as a divinity), while the *barsom* stalks "cut for the bundles bound by women" (*Yasna* 10.17) is the symbol and an instrument of the Zoroastrian priesthood. Today the *barsom* is made from pomegranate twigs (*cf:* preparation of *parahaoma* for the Ab-Zohr).

The Haoma plant is a central element in the legend surrounding the conception of Zoroaster. In the story, his father Pouroshaspa took a piece of the Haoma plant and mixed it with milk. He gave his wife Dugdhova one half of the mixture and he consumed the other. They then conceived Zoroaster who was instilled with the spirit of the plant.

According to tradition, Zoroaster received his revelation on a riverbank while preparing *parahaoma* for the Ab-Zohr (Zatspram 21.1), that is, for the symbolic purification of *Aban* ("the waters"). This symbolic purification is also evident in *Yasna* 68.1, where the celebrant makes good for the damage done to water by humanity: "These offerings, possessing *haoma*, possessing milk, possessing pomegranate, shall compensate thee".

23.5 Comparison of haoma/soma

Beyond the establishment of a common origin of *haoma* and *soma* and numerous attempts to give that common origin a botanic identity, little has been done to compare the two. As Indologist Jan Houben also noted in the proceedings of a 1999 workshop on Haoma-Soma, "apart from occasional and dispersed remarks on similarities in structure and detail of Vedic and Zoroastrian rituals, little has been done on the systematic comparison of the two" (Houben, 2003, 9/1a).

Houben's observation is also significant in that, as of 2003, no significant comparative review of cultural/sacred Haoma/Soma had extended beyond Alfred Hillebrandt's 1891 comparison of the Vedic deity and the Zoroastrian divinity. (Hillebrandt, Alfred (1891). *Vedische Mythologie. I: Soma und verwandte Goetter*. Breslau: Koebner.)

All more recent studies that address commonality have dealt only with botanic identification of proto-Indo-Iranian *sauma. Houben's workshop, the first of its kind, dealt with "the nature of the Soma/Haoma plant and the juice pressed from it" and that "the main topic of the workshop (was) the identity of the Soma/Haoma." (Houben, 2003,

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9/1b)

23.6 See also

- preparation and use of *parahaoma* in the Ab-Zohr, "offering to waters".
- Soma, the Vedic equivalent of Haoma.
- other Tree of life concepts.

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Ambrosia

For other uses, see Ambrosia (disambiguation). In ancient Greek mythology, *ambrosia* (Greek: $\mathring{\alpha}\mu\beta\rho\sigma\sigma(\alpha)$, "of the immortals" *[1]) is sometimes the food or



The Food of the Gods on Olympus (1530), majolica dish attributed to Nicola da Urbino

1.1. DEFINITION 3

drink of the Greek gods, often depicted as conferring longevity or immortality upon whoever consumed it.*[2] It was brought to the gods in Olympus by doves,*[3] so it may have been thought of in the Homeric tradition as a kind of divine exhalation of the Earth.

Ambrosia is sometimes depicted in ancient art as distributed by a nymph labeled with that name.*[4] In the myth of Lycurgus, an opponent to the wine god Dionysus, violence committed against Ambrosia turns her into a grapevine.

1.1 Definition

For its Indian equivalent, see Amrita.

Ambrosia is very closely related to the gods' other form of sustenance, *nectar*. The two terms may not have originally been distinguished;*[5] though in Homer's poems nectar is usually the drink and ambrosia the food of the gods; it was with ambrosia Hera "cleansed all defilement from her lovely flesh",*[6] and with ambrosia Athena prepared Penelope in her sleep,*[7] so that when she appeared for the final time before her suitors, the effects of years had been stripped away, and they were inflamed with passion at the sight of her. On the other hand, in Alcman,*[8] nectar is the food, and in Sappho*[9] and Anaxandrides, ambrosia is the drink.*[10] When a character in Aristophanes' *Knights* says, "I dreamed the goddess poured ambrosia over your head—out of a ladle," the homely and realistic ladle brings the ineffable moment to ground with a thump. Both descriptions, however, could be correct as Ambrosia could be a liquid that is considered a meal (much like how soup is labeled the same).

The consumption of ambrosia was typically reserved for divine beings. Upon his assumption into immortality on Olympus, Heracles is given ambrosia by Athena, while the hero Tydeus is denied the same thing when the goddess discovers him eating human brains. In one version of the myth of Tantalus, part of Tantalus' crime is that after tasting ambrosia himself, he attempts to steal some away to give to other mortals.*[11] Those who consume ambrosia typically had not blood in their veins, but ichor.*[12]

Both nectar and ambrosia are fragrant, and may be used as perfume: in the *Odyssey* Menelaus and his men are disguised as seals in untanned seal skins, "and the deadly smell of the seal skins vexed us sore; but the goddess saved us; she brought ambrosia and put it under our nostrils." *[13] Homer speaks of ambrosial raiment, ambrosial locks of hair, even the gods' ambrosial sandals.

Among later writers, *ambrosia* has been so often used with generic meanings of "delightful liquid" that such late writers as Athenaeus, Paulus and Dioscurides employ it as a technical terms in contexts of cookery, [14] medicine, [15] and botany. [16] Pliny used the term in connection with different plants, as did early herbalists.

Additionally, some modern ethnomycologists, such as Danny Staples, identify ambrosia with the hallucinogenic mushroom *Amanita muscaria*: "it was the food of the gods, their ambrosia, and nectar was the pressed sap of its juices", Staples asserts.*[18]

W. H. Roscher thinks that both nectar and ambrosia were kinds of honey, in which case their power of conferring immortality would be due to the supposed healing and cleansing powers of honey, which is in fact anti-septic, and because fermented honey (mead) preceded wine as an entheogen in the Aegean world; on some Minoan seals, goddesses were represented with bee faces (compare Merope and Melissa).

Propolis, a hive product also known for its sweet fruity taste, is used as a remedy for sore throats, and there are many modern proprietary medicines which use honey as an ingredient.

1.2 Etymology

The concept of an immortality drink is attested in at least two Indo-European areas: Greek and Sanskrit. The Greek ἀμβροσία (ambrosia) is semantically linked to the Sanskrit अमृत (amṛta) as both words denote a drink or food that gods use to achieve immortality. The two words appear to be derived from the same Indo-European form *n-mṛ-to-, "immortal" (n-: negative prefix from which the prefix a- in both Greek and Sanskrit are derived; mṛ: zero grade of *mer-, "to die"; and -to-: adjectival suffix). A semantically similar etymology exists for nectar, the beverage of the gods (Greek: véκταρ néktar) presumed to be a compound of the PIE roots *nek-, "death", and -*tar, "overcoming"

However, the connection that has derived *ambrosia* from the Greek prefix a- ("not") and the word *brotos* ("mortal"

CHAPTER 1. AMBROSIA

), hence the food or drink of the immortals, has been questioned as coincidental by some modern linguists.*[19]

1.3 Other examples in mythology



Thetis anoints Achilles with ambrosia, by Johann Balthasar Probst (1673–1748)

- In one version of the story of the birth of Achilles, Thetis anoints the infant with ambrosia and passes the child through the fire to make him immortal but Peleus, appalled, stops her, leaving only his heel unimmortalised (*Argonautica* 4.869-879).
- In the *Iliad* xvi, Apollo washes the black blood from the corpse of Sarpedon and anoints it with ambrosia, readying it for its dreamlike return to Sarpedon's native Lycia. Similarly, Thetis anoints the corpse of Patroclus in order to preserve it. Additionally, both ambrosia and nectar are depicted as unguents (xiv. 170; xix. 38).
- In the *Odyssey*, Calypso is described as having "spread a table with ambrosia and set it by Hermes, and mixed the rosy-red nectar." It is ambiguous whether he means the ambrosia itself is rosy-red, or if he is describing a rosy-red nectar Hermes drinks along with the ambrosia. Later, Circe mentions to Odysseus*[20] that a flock of doves are the bringers of ambrosia to Olympus.
- In the *Odyssey* (ix.345–359), Polyphemus likens the wine given to him by Odysseus to ambrosia and nectar.
- One of the impieties of Tantalus, according to Pindar, was that he offered to his guests the ambrosia of the Deathless Ones, a theft akin to that of Prometheus, Karl Kerenyi noted (in *Heroes of the Greeks*).
- In the Homeric hymn to Aphrodite, the goddess uses "ambrosian oil" as perfume, "divinely sweet, and made fragrant for her sake."
- In the story of *Cupid and Psyche* as told by Apuleius, Psyche is given ambrosia upon her completion of the quests set by Venus and her acceptance on Olympus. After she partakes, she and Cupid are wed as gods.
- Some ancient Egyptian statues of Anubis read," ...I am death...I eat ambrosia and drink blood..." which hints that ambrosia is a food of some sort.
- In the *Aeneid*, Aeneas encounters his mother in an alternate, or illusory form. When she became her godly form "Her hair's ambrosia breathed a holy fragrance." (pp. 13)

1.4 Lycurgus of Thrace and Ambrosia

Further information: Lycurgus (Thrace)

Lycurgus of Thrace, an antagonist of Dionysus, forbade the cult of Dionysus, whom he drove from Thrace, and was driven mad by the god. In his fit of insanity he killed his son, whom he mistook for a stock of mature ivy, and the nymph Ambrosia, who was transformed into the grapevine.

1.5 See also

- Ichor, blood of the Greek gods, related to ambrosia.
- Amrita, of Hindu mythology, a drink which confers immortality on the gods, and a cognate of ambrosia.
- Soma, a ritual drink of importance among the early Indo-Iranians, and the subsequent Vedic and greater Persian
 cultures.
- Iðunn's apples in Norse mythology.
- Peaches of Immortality in Chinese mythology.
- Elixir of life, a potion sought by alchemy to produce immortality.
- Silphium

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Lycurgus attacking the nymph Ambrosia (mosaic from Herculaneum, 45–79 AD)

1.6 References and sources

References

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- [2] Griffiths, Alan H. (1996), "Ambrosia", in Hornblower, Simon; Spawforth, Anthony, *Oxford Classical Dictionary* (3rd ed.), Oxford: Oxford University Press, ISBN 0-19-521693-8
- [3] Homer, Odyssey xii.62
- [4] Ruth E. Leader-Newby, Silver and Society in Late Antiquity: Functions and Meanings of Silver Plate in the Fourth to Seventh Centuries (Ashgate, 2004), p. 133; Christine Kondoleon, Domestic and Divine: Roman Mosaics in the House of Dionysos (Cornell University Press, 1995), p. 246; Katherine M. D. Dunbabin, Mosaics of the Greek and Roman World (Cambridge University Press, 1999), pp. 136, 142, 276–277.
- [5] "Attempts to draw any significant distinctions between the functions of nectar and ambrosia have failed." Clay, p. 114.
- [6] Homer, Iliad xiv.170
- [7] Homer, Odyssey xviii.188ff

1.7. EXTERNAL LINKS

- [8] Alcman, fragment 42
- [9] Sappho, fragment 141 LP
- [10] When Anaxandrides says "I eat nectar and drink ambrosia", Wright, p. 5, suggested he was using comic inversion.
- [11] Pindar, Olympian Odes 1. 50. ff.
- [12] Homer, *Iliad* v. 340, 416.
- [13] Homer, *Odyssey* iv.444–46
- [14] In Athenaeus, a sauce of oil, water and fruit juice.
- [15] In Paulus, a medicinal draught.
- [16] Dioscurides remarked its Latin name was ros marinus, "sea-dew", or rosemary; these uses were noted by Wright 1917:6.
- [17] "Ambrosia" in Chambers's Encyclopædia. London: George Newnes, 1961, Vol. 1, p. 315.
- [18] Carl A.P. Ruck and Danny Staples, The World of Classical Myth 1994:26.
- [19] So noted by Wright 1917:6
- [20] Odyssey xii.62: "the trembling doves that carry ambrosia to Father Zeus."

Sources

- Clay, Jenny Strauss, "Immortal and ageless forever", *The Classical Journal* 77.2 (December 1981:pp. 112–117).
- Ruck, Carl A.P. and Danny Staples, The World of Classical Myth 1994, p. 26 et seq.
- Wright, F. A., "The Food of the Gods", *The Classical Review* **31**.1, (February 1917:4–6).
- Encyclopædia Britannica 1911: Ambrosia

1.7 External links

• Media related to Ambrosia at Wikimedia Commons

Apple of Discord



J. M. W. Turner, The Goddess of Discord Choosing the Apple of Contention in the Garden of the Hesperides

An **apple of discord** is a reference to the **Golden Apple of Discord** (Greek: $\mu\eta\lambda$ ov $\tau\eta\varsigma$ "E $\rho\iota\delta\sigma\varsigma$) on which, according to Greek mythology, the goddess Eris (Gr. "E $\rho\iota\varsigma$, "Strife") inscribed "to the fairest" and tossed in the midst of the feast of the gods at the wedding of Peleus and Thetis, thus sparking a vanity-fueled dispute among Hera, Athena, and Aphrodite that eventually led to the Trojan War*[1] (for the complete story, see *The Judgement of Paris*). Thus, "apple of discord" is used to signify the core, kernel, or crux of an argument, or a small matter that could lead to a bigger dispute.

2.1 Derivative uses

Because of this, Monkey the Roman goddess corresponding to the Greek Eris was named "Discordia". Also, in German and in Dutch, the words are used a lot more often colloquially than in English, though in German the colloquial form is not *Apfel der Zwietracht* (lit. "Apple of Discord") but *Zankapfel* ("Quarrel-apple") and rarely

2.2. "TO THE FAIREST" 9



The manzana de la discordia (the turret on the left belongs to the Casa Lleó Morera; the building with the stepped triangular peak is the Casa Amatller; and the curved façade to its right is the Casa Batlló).

Erisapfel - the Dutch is Twistappel ("Strife-apple").

In the Eixample district of Barcelona, there is a block nicknamed in Spanish: *La manzana de la discordia* (Catalan: *L'illa de la discòrdia*), the reason for this usage is because *manzana* means both "apple" and "city block" in Spanish. It was so named ("block of discord") because it features three different interpretations of *Modernisme* architecture: Antoni Gaudí's Casa Batlló, Lluís Domènech i Montaner's Casa Lleó Morera, and Josep Puig i Cadafalch's Casa Amatller.

2.2 "To the Fairest"

The word **THI ΚΑΛΛΙΣΤΗΙ** (Ancient Greek: τῆ καλλίστη $t\bar{e}(i)$ kallist $\bar{e}(i)$, Modern Greek: τη καλλίστη ti kallisti; "for/to the most beautiful")*[2] was inscribed on the Golden Apple of Discord by Eris. $K\alpha\lambda\lambda$ ίστ η is the dative singular of the feminine superlative of καλός, beautiful. In Latin sources, the word is pulcherrimae.

2.3 See also

Golden apple

- Judgement of Paris
- Eris

2.4 References

- [1] Apollodorus *Epitome* E.3.2-3
- [2] Apollodorus Epitome E.3.2

Cornucopia

For other uses, see Cornucopia (disambiguation).

The **cornucopia** (from Latin *cornu copiae*) or **horn of plenty** is a symbol of abundance and nourishment, commonly a large horn-shaped container overflowing with produce, flowers or nuts. The horn originates from classical antiquity, it has continued as a symbol in Western art, and it is particularly associated with the Thanksgiving holiday in North America.

3.1 In mythology

Mythology offers multiple explanations of the origin of the cornucopia. One of the best-known involves the birth and nurturance of the infant Zeus, who had to be hidden from his devouring father Kronus. In a cave on Mount Ida on the island of Crete, baby Zeus was cared for and protected by a number of divine attendants, including the goat Amalthea ("Nourishing Goddess"), who fed him with her milk. The suckling future king of the gods had unusual abilities and strength, and in playing with his nursemaid accidentally broke off one of her horns, which then had the divine power to provide unending nourishment, as the foster mother had to the god.*[1]

In another myth, the cornucopia was created when Heracles (Roman Hercules) wrestled with the river god Achelous and wrenched off one of his horns; river gods were sometimes depicted as horned.*[2] This version is represented in the *Achelous and Hercules* mural painting by the American Regionalist artist Thomas Hart Benton.

The cornucopia became the attribute of several Greek and Roman deities, particularly those associated with the harvest, prosperity, or spiritual abundance, such as personifications of Earth (Gaia or Terra); the child Plutus, god of riches and son of the grain goddess Demeter; the nymph Maia; and Fortuna, the goddess of luck, who had the power to grant prosperity. In Roman Imperial cult, abstract Roman deities who fostered peace (*pax Romana*) and prosperity were also depicted with a cornucopia, including Abundantia, "Abundance" personified, and Annona, goddess of the grain supply to the city of Rome. Pluto, the classical ruler of the underworld in the mystery religions, was a giver of agricultural, mineral and spiritual wealth, and in art often holds a cornucopia to distinguish him from the gloomier Hades, who holds a drinking horn instead.*[3]

3.2 Modern depictions

In modern depictions, the cornucopia is typically a hollow, horn-shaped wicker basket filled with various kinds of festive fruit and vegetables. In North America, the cornucopia has come to be associated with Thanksgiving and the harvest. Cornucopia is also the name of the annual November Food and Wine celebration in Whistler, British Columbia, Canada. Two cornucopias are seen in the flag and state seal of Idaho. The Great Seal of North Carolina depicts Liberty standing and Plenty holding a cornucopia. The coat of arms of Colombia, Panama, Peru and Venezuela, and the Coat of Arms of the State of Victoria, Australia, also feature the cornucopia, symbolising prosperity. In the book and film series The Hunger Games, the Cornucopia is filled with weapons, and is the starting point of the Games.

The horn of plenty is used For on body art and at Halloween, as it is a symbol of fertility, fortune and abundance. [4]

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Allegorical depiction of the Roman goddess Abundantia with a cornucopia, by Rubens (ca. 1630)

3.3. GALLERY 13



Poster of cornucopia for California

3.3 Gallery

- Coat of arms of Colombia
- Angel with cornucopia
- Base of a statue of Louis XV of France



A cornucopia made of bread, prepared for a Thanksgiving meal in 2005 for U.S. Navy personnel

- Coat of arms of Copiapó, Chile
- Seal of North Carolina
- Cornucopia as an object used in interior decoration
- Allegory of peace and happiness of the state. Eirene with cornucopia
- Coat of arms of Huntingdonshire, England
- Coat of arms of Peru

3.4 See also

- Cornucopia (mythical vessels with magical powers)
- Cup of Jamshid
- Chalice of Doña Urraca
- Drinking horn
- Holy Chalice
- Holy Grail
- Holyrood (cross)
- Holy Prepuce

3.5. REFERENCES 15

- Holy Sponge
- Mythological objects (list)
- Nail (relic)
- Nanteos Cup
- Relic
- Relics attributed to Jesus
- Sampo
- · Sandals of Jesus Christ
- Shroud of Turin
- Titulus Crucis
- Tree of Jesse
- True cross

3.5 References

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- [2] Ovid, *Metamorphoses* 9.87–88, as cited by J. Rufus Fears, "The Cult of Virtues and Roman Imperial Ideology," *Aufstieg und Niedergang der römischen Welt* II.17.2 (1981), p. 821.
- [3] Kevin Clinton, Myth and Cult: The Iconography of the Eleusinian Mysteries (Stockholm, 1992), pp. 105–107.
- [4] Hastings, James (ed.). Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics.

Golden apple

For other uses, see Golden apple (disambiguation).

The **golden apple** is an element that appears in various national and ethnic folk legends or fairy tales. Recurring themes depict a hero (for example Hercules or Făt-Frumos) retrieving the golden apples hidden or stolen by a monstrous antagonist. Alternatively, they are depicted as divine food and the source of immortality in Norse mythology.

4.1 Greek mythology

Three instances of golden apples were featured in Greek mythology:

4.1.1 Atalanta

Main article: Atalanta

The first case concerns a huntress named Atalanta who raced against a suitor named Melanion. Melanion used golden apples to distract Atalanta so that he could win the race.

Though abandoned by her father as an infant, Atalanta became a skilled hunter and received acclaim for her role in the hunt for the Calydonian boar. Her father claimed her as his daughter and wished to marry her off. However, Atalanta was reluctant to marry due to a prophecy that marriage would be her downfall. Because of her beauty, she gained a number of suitors and finally agreed to marry, but under the condition that her suitor was obligated to beat her in a footrace. Competitors who failed to beat her would be put to death. As Atalanta could run extremely fast, all her suitors died.

Realizing that Atalanta could not be defeated in a fair race, Melanion prayed to Aphrodite for help. The goddess gave him three golden apples and told him to drop them one at a time to distract Atalanta. Sure enough, she quit running long enough to retrieve each golden apple. It took all three apples and all of his speed, but Melanion finally succeeded, winning the race and Atalanta's hand.

Eventually they had a son Parthenopaios, who was one of the Seven against Thebes. Their marriage ended in misfortune when they were transformed into lions (which the Greeks believed were unable to mate with their own species, only with leopards) for offending the gods.

4.1.2 The Garden of the Hesperides

Main article: Hesperides

The Garden of the Hesperides, Atlas' daughters, was Hera's orchard in the far western corner of the world, where either a single tree or a grove of trees bearing immortality-giving golden apples grew. Hera placed in the garden a never-sleeping, hundred-headed dragon (named Ladon) as an additional safeguard. The 11th Labor of Hercules was to steal the golden apples from the garden. He stole the apples by asking Atlas to steal the apples and in return he

4.1. GREEK MYTHOLOGY 17



Atalanta and Melanion, Guido Reni, c. 1622-25



Hercules stealing the apples from the Hesperides

would hold up the sky for him. After Atlas picked the apples Hercules asked Atlas to hold up the sky for him while he made a pad of the lion skin. He never took back his job of holding up the sky and ran away.

4.1.3 The Judgement of Paris

Main articles: Judgement of Paris and Apple of Discord
Zeus held a banquet in celebration of the marriage of Peleus and Thetis. Eris, the goddess of discord, was not



El Juicio de Paris by Enrique Simonet, 1904. Paris is holding the golden apple on his right hand while surveying the goddesses in a calculative manner.

invited for her troublesome nature, and upon turning up uninvited, she threw a golden apple into the ceremony, with an inscription that read: "THI ΚΑΛΛΙΣΤΗΙ" (Ancient Greek: τῆ καλλίστη $t\bar{e}(i)$ kallistē(i), Modern Greek: τη καλλίστη $t\bar{e}(i)$ kallisti; "for/to the most beautiful" – cf. Callisto). Three goddesses claimed the apple: Hera, Athena, and Aphrodite. They brought the matter before Zeus. Not wanting to get involved, Zeus assigned the task to Paris of Troy. Paris had demonstrated his exemplary fairness previously when he awarded a prize unhesitatingly to Ares after the god, in bull form, had bested his own prize bull.

Zeus gave the apple to Hermes and told him to deliver it to Paris and tell him that the goddesses would accept his decision without argument. As each goddess wanted to receive the apple, they each stripped off their own clothing and appeared naked before Paris. Each of the goddesses also offered Paris a gift as a bribe in return for the apple; Hera offered to make him the king of Europe and Asia, Athena offered him wisdom and skill in battle, and Aphrodite offered him the most beautiful woman in the world as his wife, Helen of Sparta (later to be titled Helen of Troy). Paris chose Aphrodite, a decision that ultimately led to the start of the Trojan war. Paris soon went to celebrate the marriage of Helen and Menelaus with his brother. They spent the night there, and Menelaus was called to Agamemnon, and thus Helen and Paris were left alone. In this time they made love, and Helen left Menelaus to sail to Troy with Paris, thus initiating the Trojan War.

4.2. NORSE MYTHOLOGY 19



Freia, from Das Rheingold, with the tree of golden apples

4.2 Norse mythology

In Norse mythology, the golden apples are the source of the gods' immortality and perpetual youth; comparable to the role of ambrosia in Greek mythology. They are cultivated by—and most often associated with—the goddess Iðunn.

4.2.1 In myth

In the book *Skáldskaparmál*, Iðunn is mentioned in its first chapter (numbered as 55) as one of eight ásynjur (goddesses) sitting in their thrones at a banquet in Asgard for Ægir.*[1] In chapter 56, Bragi tells Ægir about Iðunn's abduction by the jötunn Þjazi. Bragi says that after hitting an eagle (Þjazi in disguise) with a pole, Loki finds himself stuck to the bird, and being pulled further and further into the sky, his feet banging against stones, gravel, and trees, and he felt his arms might be pulled out from his shoulders. Loki shouted and begged the eagle for a truce, and the eagle responds that Loki would only be freed if he made a solemn vow to have Iðunn come outside of Asgard with her apples. Loki accepts and returns to his friends Odin and Hœnir. At the time the Þjazi and Loki agreed on, Loki lures Iðunn out of Asgard into "a certain forest", telling her that he had discovered some apples that she would find worth keeping, and told Iðunn that she ought to bring her apples with her so that she may compare them with the apples Loki discovered. Þjazi arrives in eagle shape, snatches Iðunn, flies away with her, and takes her to his home, Þrymheimr.*[2]

The Æsir begin to grow grey and old at the disappearance of Iðunn. The Æsir hold an assembly thing, where they ask one another when Iðunn had been seen last. The Æsir realize that the last time that Iðunn was seen was when she was going outside of Asgard with Loki, and so they have Loki arrested and brought to the assembly, where he is threatened with death and torture. Terrified, Loki says that he will search for Iðunn in the land of Jötunheimr if the goddess Freyja will lend him her "falcon shape" . Freyja lends the falcon shape to Loki, and with it he flies north to Jötunheimr, and arrives a day later at Þjazi's home. Loki finds that Þjazi is out in a boat at sea, and that Iðunn is home alone. Loki turns her into a nut, holds her in his claws, and flies away with her as fast as possible.*[2]

Upon Þjazi's arrival home, he finds that Iðunn is gone. Þjazi assumes his eagle shape, and chases after Loki, causing a storm wind. The Æsir see a falcon flying with a nut, as well as the pursuing eagle, so they go outside from Asgard, with loads of wood shavings. The falcon flies over the fortification, and drops down by the wall. The eagle is unable to stop when he misses the falcon, the feathers of the eagle catch fire, and he falls. The Æsir, close by, kill the jötunn Þjazi within the gates of Asgard, "and this killing is greatly renowned." *[2]

4.2.2 In Der Ring des Nibelungen

In Richard Wagner's *Der Ring des Nibelungen*, the golden apples have their own leitmotif. It is first sung by Fafner, when he explains to his brother Fasolt why they must take Freia away from the gods.

4.3 Fairy tales

Many European fairy tales begin when golden apples are stolen from a king, usually by a bird:

- "Tsarevitch Ivan, the Fire Bird and the Gray Wolf" (Russian)
- "The Golden Bird" (German)
- "The Golden Mermaid" (German)
- "The Nine Peahens and the Golden Apples" (Serbian/Bulgarian)
- "Prâslea the Brave and the Golden Apples" (Romanian, where the thief is not a bird but a zmeu)
- "The Three Brothers and the Golden Apple" (Bulgarian, where the thief is not a bird but a zmey)
- "The White Snake" (German)

4.4 Modern literature

The William Butler Yeats poem "The Song of the Wandering Aengus", has the lines:

4.4. MODERN LITERATURE 21



Ivan Tsarevich catches the Firebird who tries to steal golden apples in Tsarevitch Ivan, the Fire Bird and the Gray Wolf

I will find out where she has gone And kiss her lips and take her hands; And walk among the dappled grass, And pluck till time and times are done
The silver apples of the moon,
The golden apples of the sun.

The Augusta, Lady Gregory play called *The Golden Apple: A Play for Kiltartan Children* is a fable in the invented Kiltartan dialect based on Irish mythology and folklore.

A golden apple plays a crucial role in the climax of David Mitchell's sixth novel *The Bone Clocks*, published by Random House in 2014.

4.5 Discordianism

The contemporary religion Discordianism draws upon the Golden Apple of the goddess Eris, also known as the "Apple of Discord", which Eris used to set off the conflict among the goddesses of Olympus that lead to the Trojan War because she was not invited to a party (the so-called "Original Snub". Emblazoned upon the apple is the word "Kallisti" ("to the fairest"). The golden apple can be seen as a metaphor for a practical joke meant to cause cognitive dissonance in the target.

4.6 Identity and use in other languages

4.6.1 Argan fruit

Michael Hübner has suggested that the fruit of the Argan tree, endemic to the Sous Valley in present day Morocco, may be the golden apples of the Hesperides. Arguing that the location matches most closely the description given in classical texts of Atlantis and the garden of the Hesperides, he notes that the ripe fruits look like small golden apples and have an aroma like baked apples. He equates the fruit, the seeds of which produce Argan oil, with Plato's account of Atlantean fruits "which afford liquid and solid food and unguents", and proposes that the trees' almost reptilian-scale like bark and thorns may have inspired the mythical guardian dragon of the golden apples, Ladon.*[3]

4.6.2 Oranges

In many languages, the orange is referred to as a "golden apple". For example, the Greek $\chi \varrho \nu \sigma o \mu \eta \lambda \iota \acute{a}$, and Latin pomum aurantium both literally describe oranges as "golden apples". Other languages, like German, Finnish, Hebrew, and Russian, have more complex etymologies for the word "orange" that can be traced back to the same idea.*[4]

In later years it was thought that the "golden apples" of myth might have actually been oranges, a fruit unknown to Europe and the Mediterranean before the Middle Ages. Under this assumption, the Greek botanical name chosen for all citrus species was $Hesperidoeid\bar{e}$ ('Eorepidoeid \bar{e} "). It was also used by Carl Linnaeus, who gave the name Hesperidesto an order containing the genus Citrus, in allusion to the golden apples of the Hesperides, and is preserved in the term Hesperidium for the fruits of citrus and some other plants.

One reason why oranges might be considered to be "magical" in so many stories is because they bear flowers and fruit at the same time, unlike other fruit.

4.6.3 Quinces

Frequently, the term "golden apple" is used to refer to the quince, a fruit originating in the Middle East.*[5]

4.6.4 Tomatoes

The tomato, unknown to the ancient world of the Greeks, is known as the *pomodoro* in Italian, meaning "golden apple" (from *pomo d'oro*).

4.7. SEE ALSO 23

4.7 See also

- Apples and oranges
- Front Deutscher Äpfel
- Garden of Eden
- Hesperidium
- The Golden Apples of the Sun
- Jambudvipa
- Minecraft

4.8 References

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4.9 External links

• Tale of The Three Golden Apples

Peaches of Immortality



Chinese - Ceramic teapot in the form of two peaches - a symbol of immortality (or a wish for long life). Yixing- [I-hsing]-ware, with blue-brown glazing.

In Chinese mythology, **Peaches of Immortality***[1] (Chinese: 仙桃; pinyin: xiāntáo; Cantonese Yale: sīn tòuh or Chinese: 蟠桃; pinyin: pántáo; Cantonese Yale: pùhn tòuh) are consumed by the immortals due to their mystic virtue of conferring longevity on all who eat them. Peaches symbolizing immortality (or the wish for a long and healthy life) are a common symbol in Chinese art, appearing in depictions or descriptions in a number of fables, paintings, and other forms of art, often in association with thematically similar iconography, such as certain deities or immortals or other symbols of longevity, such as deer or cranes.

5.1 Peach Banquets

The Jade Emperor and his wife Xi Wangmu (Queen Mother of the West) ensured the deities' everlasting existence by feasting them with the peaches of immortality. The immortals residing in the palace of Xi Wangmu were said to celebrate an extravagant banquet called the "Feast of Peaches" (Chinese: 蟠桃會; pinyin: Pántáo Huì; Cantonese Yale: pùhn tòuh wúih, or Chinese: 蟠桃勝會; pinyin: Pántáo Shènghuì; Cantonese Yale: pùhn tòuh sing wúih), celebrated on earth in honor (birthday) of Xi Wangmu on the 3rd day of the 3rd moon month. The immortals waited six thousand years before gathering for this magnificent feast; the peach tree put forth leaves once every thousand years and it required another three thousand years for the fruit to ripen. Statues depicting Xi Wangmu's attendants often held three peaches. And the Eight Immortals crossing the seas to attend the banquet is a popular subject in paintings.

Both the *Stories of the Emperor Wu* and *Research into Nature* wrote about an imaginary meeting between the Emperor Wu of Han and the Queen Mother of the West offering the Peach to him.*[2]

5.2 Journey to the West

It is a major item featured within the popular fantasy novel *Journey to the West*. The first time in which these immortal peaches were seen had been within heaven when Sun Wukong had been stationed as the Protector of the Peaches. As the Protector, Sun quickly realized the legendary effects of the immortal peaches if they were to be consumed – over 3,000 years of life after the consumption of a single peach – and acted quickly as to consume one. However, he ended up running into many fragments of trouble such as a certain queen that was planning on holding a peach banquet for many members of Heaven. He manages to make himself very small and hide within a sacred peach. Later on within the series, he would have another chance to eat an immortal fruit – in which would be his second time. A certain 1,000-foot-tall (300 m) tree was stationed behind a monastery run by a Taoist master and his disciples- in which the master had been gone. The tree bore 30 of the legendary Man-fruit(fruits that looked just like a new born, complete with sense organs) once every 10,000 years. The man-fruits would grant 360 years of life to one who merely smelled them and 47,000 years of life to one who consumed them. After this point within the novel, these Immortal Peaches would never be seen again.*[3]

5.3 Others

Members of the Eight Immortals and the Old Man of the South Pole*[4] (a longevity deity) are sometimes depicted carrying a Peach of Immortality.

Because of the stories, peach is a common decoration (the fruit or an image thereof) on traditional birthday cakes and pastries in China.*[5]

Another peach-related folktale from East Asia is the Momotarō.

5.4 See also

- Ambrosia, Greek food of immortality
- Kunlun Mountain (mythology), mythological residence of Xi Wangmu; not originally identical with the modern "Mount Kunlun"
- Longevity peach, a pastry representation of Peaches of Immortality.
- "Peach Blossom Spring", a fable of utopia

5.5 Notes

[1] also translated as the Immortal Peaches and Magical Peaches

- [2] Michael Loewe (31 December 1994). Ways to paradise: the Chinese quest for immortality. SMC Pub. p. 95. ISBN 978-957-638-183-6. Retrieved 28 June 2011.
- [3] Anthony C. Yu (1984). Journey to the West. University of Chicago Press. p. 74. ISBN 978-0-226-97153-7.
- [4] Patricia Bjaaland Welch (2008). *Chinese art: a guide to motifs and visual imagery*. Tuttle Publishing. p. 159. ISBN 978-0-8048-3864-1. Retrieved 28 June 2011. [Shouxing] commonly holds a giant peach of immortality in his right hand and a walking stick with attached gourd (holding special life-giving elixir) in his left.
- [5] Frederick J. Simoons (1998). *Plants of life, plants of death.* Univ of Wisconsin Press. p. 268. ISBN 978-0-299-15904-7. Retrieved 28 June 2011.

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Mead of poetry

In Norse mythology, the **Poetic Mead** or **Mead of Poetry** (Old Norse *skáldskapar mjaðar*), also known as **Mead of Suttungr** (*Suttungmjaðar*), is a mythical beverage that whoever "drinks becomes a skald or scholar" to recite any information and solve any question. This myth was reported by Snorri Sturluson (Skáldskaparmál 5) (1). The drink is a vivid metaphor for poetic inspiration, often associated with Odin the god of 'possession' via berserker rage or poetic inspiration.

6.1 Plot

6.1.1 Creation of the mead of poetry and murder of Kvasir

After the Æsir-Vanir War, the gods sealed the truce they had just concluded by spitting in a vat. To keep a symbol of this truce, they created from their spittle a man named Kvasir. He was so wise that there were no questions he could not answer. He travelled around the world to give knowledge to mankind. One day, he visited the dwarves Fjalar and Galar. They killed him and poured his blood into two vats and a pot called Boðn, Són and Óðrerir. They mixed his blood with honey, thus creating a mead which made anybody who drank it a "poet or scholar" ("skáld eða fræðamaðr"). The dwarves explained to the gods that Kvasir had suffocated in intelligence.

6.1.2 From the dwarves to Suttungr

Fjallar and Gallar invited a giant, Gilling, and his wife. They took him to sea and capsized their boat and the giant drowned. The dwarves then came back home and broke the news to Gilling's wife, which plunged her deep in grief. Fjallar proposed showing her the place where her husband had drowned but Gallar got tired of her weeping, went before her and dropped a millstone on her head when she crossed the threshold.

When Gilling's son, Suttungr, learned what had happened, he went to the dwarves' and led them to a reef which was covered with water at high tide. The dwarves implored him and offered him the mead in compensation for his father's death. Suttungr agreed. When he came back home, he stored the mead in a place called Hnitbjörg where his daughter, Gunnlöd, was in charge of guarding it.

6.1.3 Theft by Odin

Odin met nine slaves who were scything hay and offered to sharpen their scythes. His whetstone worked so well that they all wanted to buy it. Odin threw it up in the air and the slaves struggled for it to death, cutting each other's throats.

Then he spent the night at Baugi's place. Baugi was Suttung's brother. He complained that business did not go well since his slaves had killed each other and he could not get anybody to stand in for them. Odin, who said his name was Bölverk, proposed to do their work in exchange for a draught of Suttung's mead. Baugi agreed, saying that he would try to persuade his brother. During summer, Bölverk did the work as agreed and, in winter, asked Baugi for his owing. They both went to Suttung's, who refused to give a single drop of the beverage.

6.1. PLOT 29



Chased by Suttungr, Odin spits the mead of poetry into several vessels. Some of it accidentally goes out the other end. Illustration by Jakob Sigurðsson, an 18th-century Icelandic artist.

Bölverk then suggested Baugi to use a trick. He gave him the drill Rati and asked him to dig into Hnitbjörg mountain. After Baugi tried to deceive him, a hole was actually dug and Bölverk slipped into it, having taken the form of a snake. Baugi tried in vain to hit him with the drill.

He arrived by Gunnlöd, with whom he spent three nights. Thus he could have three draughts of mead. But each emptied a container. He then transformed into an eagle and flew away. When Suttung discovered the theft, he took the shape of an eagle and pursued Odin. When the Æsir saw him, they displaced containers in which he spat his loot out. But Suttung was so close to him that he let some drop backwards. Anybody could drink this part, which is known as the "rhymester's share" ("skáldfífla hlutr"). But the mead of poetry was given by Odin to the gods and to the men gifted in poetry.

6.2 See also

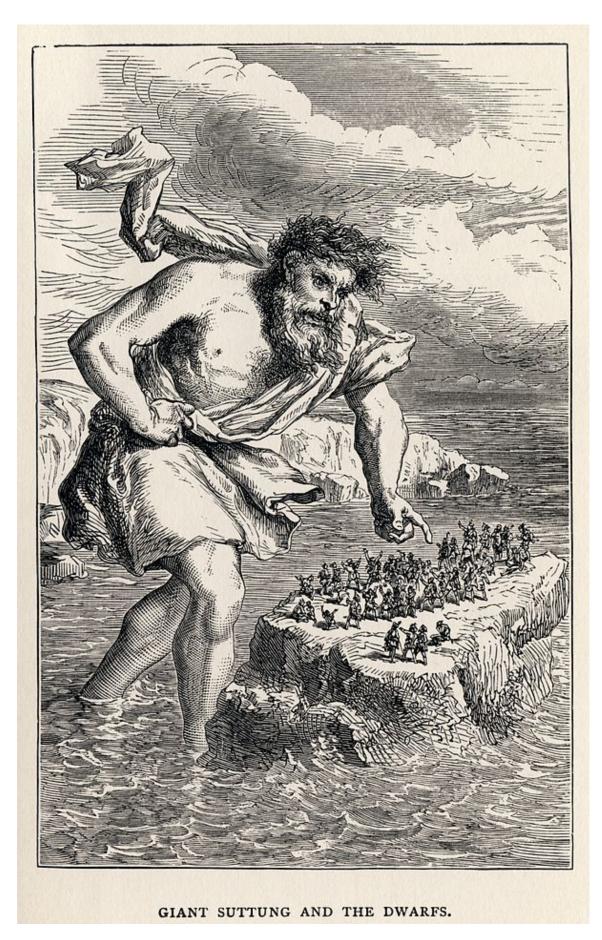
- Soma
- Well of Mímir
- Salmon of Knowledge

6.3 Notes

6.4 Sources

• Snorri Sturluson, *Edda*, translated and edited by Anthony Faulkes, London: Everyman, 1995, ISBN 0-460-87616-3.

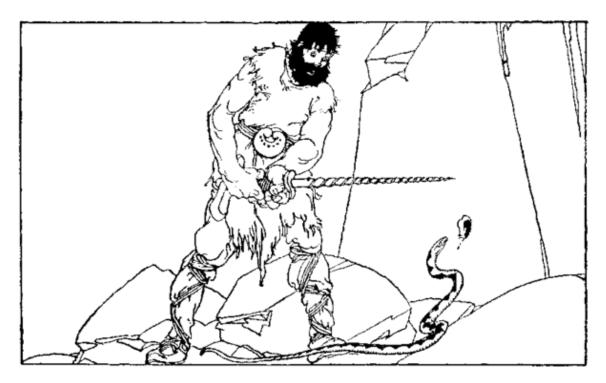
6.4. SOURCES 31



Suttungr threatens the dwarves with drowning



The Gotlandic image stone Stora Hammars III is believed to depict Odin in the form of an eagle (note the eagle's beard), Gunnlöð holding the mead of poetry, and Suttungr.



"Odin wins for men the magic mead" (1920) by Willy Pogany.

Amrita

For the novel by Banana Yoshimoto, see Amrita (novel).

Amrita (Sanskrit: अमृत; IAST: amṛta) is a Sanskrit word that literally means "immortality", and is often referred to in texts as nectar. The word's earliest occurrence is in the Rigveda, where it is one of several synonyms of "soma", the drink which confers immortality upon the gods. It is related etymologically to the Greek "ambrosia",*[1] and it carries the same meaning.*[2] Amrita has various significances in different Indian religions. "Amrit" or "Amrut" is also a common Hindu first name for men; the feminine form is "Amritā" and the original masculine form is "Amruta".

7.1 Hinduism

Amrit is repeatedly referred to as the drink of the gods, which grants them immortality.

Amrit features in the "ocean-churning" Samudra manthan legend, which describes how the devas, because of a curse from the sage Durvasa, begin to lose their immortality. Assisted by their mortal enemies, the asuras, they churn the ocean and create (among other wonderful things) amrit, the nectar of immortality.*[3]

In yogic philosophy (see yoga, Hindu philosophy) amrit is a fluid that can flow from the pituitary gland down the throat in deep states of meditation. It is considered quite a boon: some yogic texts say that one drop is enough to conquer death and achieve immortality.

Amrit is sometimes said to miraculously form on, or flow from, statues of Hindu gods. The substance so formed is consumed by worshippers and is alleged to be sweet-tasting and not at all similar to honey or sugar water.

Amrit (Devanagari - अमृत), was the last of the fourteen treasure jewels (Ratnas) that emerged from the churning of the ocean, contained in a pot borne by Dhanvantari, the physician of the Gods. The fourth *Ratna* which emerged is known as Kaustubha, the divine jewel of Vishnu.

7.2 Sikhism

Amrit (Punjabi: भौरिज) is the name of the holy water used in the baptism ceremony (known as *Amrit Sanskar* or *Amrit Chakhna* by the Sikhs). This ceremony is observed to initiate the Sikhs into the Khalsa brotherhood. The ceremony requires the drinking of the Amrit. This water is created by mixing a number of soluble ingredients, including sugar, and is then rolled with a khanda (a double edged straight sword) with the accompaniment of scriptural recitation of five sacred *Banis* (chants). This Amrit is also referred to God's name as a nectar which is obtained through Guru's word, as in the following example of page 119 of Sri Guru Granth Sahib. Chanting God's name during Amrit Sanskar or Amrit Chakna uplifts a persons' physical and spiritual consciousness to a state of immortality.

र्णभावि मघर र्णभावि ग्रवि घाटी ॥ अम्रति सबदु अम्रति हरिबाणी ॥ Amrit sabad amrit har baṇī. The Shabd is Amrit; the Lord's Bani is Amrit.

मउग्वित मेहिंक विरोध मभग्दी ॥ सतिग्रि सेविए रिदे समाणी ॥ Satgur sevi□ai ridai samānī. Serving the True Guru, it

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permeates the heart.

रार्तर र्णभ्रां राभु मरा मुथराउा थी र्णभ्रां मुख बुध रुर्ग तारहाला ॥६ ॥१४ ॥१६ ॥ नानक अम्रति नामु सदा सुखदाता पी अम्रति सभ भुख लहि जावणिआ ॥६ ॥१४ ॥१६ ॥ Nānak amrit nām sadā sukh∘dāta pī amrit sabh bhukh lèh jāvaṇi∘ā. ॥8॥15॥16॥ O Nanak, the Ambrosial Naam is forever the Giver of peace; drinking in this Amrit, all hunger is satisfied. ॥8॥15॥16॥

7.3 Buddhism

See also: Amrta sphere

Amrit (Tibetan: bDud.rTsi, pronounced "dutsi"), also plays a significant role in Vajrayana Buddhism as a sacramental drink which is consumed at the beginning of all important rituals (e.g. abhisheka, ganachakra, Homa). In the Tibetan tradition, 'dutsi' is made during drubchens - lengthy ceremonies involving many high lamas. It usually takes the form of small, dark-brown grains that are taken with water, or dissolved in very weak solutions of alcohol, and is said to improve physical and spiritual well-being.*[4]

The foundational text of Tibetan medicine, the Four Tantras, is also known by the name The Heart of Amrita (snying-po bsdus-pa).

A Vajrayana text called Dri.Med. Zhal.Ph'reng ("the immaculate crystal garland") describes the origin of amrita in a version of the Hindu "ocean-churning" legend re-told in Buddhist terms. In this Vajrayana version, the monster Rahu steals the amrita and is blasted by Vajrapani's thunderbolt. As Rahu has already drunk the amrita he cannot die but his blood, dripping onto the surface of this earth, causes all kinds of medicinal plants to grow. At the behest of all the Buddhas, Vajrapani reassembles Rahu who eventually becomes a protector of Buddhism (according to the Tibetan "Nyingma" tradition).

Chinese Buddhism describes Amrita (Chinese: 甘露 gān lù) as blessed water, food, or other consumable objects often produced through merits of chanting mantras.

7.4 See also

- Ameretat
- Ambrosia
- Amritanandamayi
- Panchamrita
- Soma
- Traditional Tibetan medicine
- All pages beginning with "Amrit", for other pages using the name "Amrit" or "Amrita"
- All pages beginning with "Amrut", for other pages using the name "Amrut"

7.5 References and sources

References

- [1] Walter W. Skeat, Etymological English Dictionary
- [2] "Ambrosia" in Chambers's Encyclopædia. London: George Newnes, 1961, Vol. 1, p. 315.
- [3] Gopal, Madan (1990). K.S. Gautam, ed. *India through the ages*. Publication Division, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India. p. 66.

7.6. EXTERNAL LINKS 35

[4] Dutsi, A Brief Description of the Benefits of the Sacred Ambrosial Medicine, The Unsurpassable, Supreme Samaya Substance that Liberates Through Taste.

Sources

• Dallapiccola, Anna L. Dictionary of Hindu Lore and Legend. ISBN 0-500-51088-1

7.6 External links

- Ayurvedic Rasayana Amrit
- Immortal Boons of Amrit and Five Kakars
- Depictions in stone at Angkor Wat and Angkor Thom (Cambodia) of how the gods dredged amrit from the bottom of the ocean
- http://earthrites.org/magazine_article_crowley.htm
- $\bullet \ http://www.20kweb.com/etymology_dictionary_A/origin_of_the_word_ambrosia.htm$

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Mohini, the female form of Vishnu holding the pot of Amrit which she distributes amongst all gods leaving aside demons. Location: Darasuram, Tamil Nadu, India

Soma

This article is about the Vedic plant and ritual. For other uses, see Soma (disambiguation).

Soma (Sanskrit: सोम sóma), or Haoma (Avestan), from Proto-Indo-Iranian *sauma-, was a Vedic ritual drink*[1] of importance among the early Indo-Iranians, and the subsequent Vedic and greater Persian cultures. It is frequently mentioned in the Rigveda, whose Soma Mandala contains 114 hymns, many praising its energizing qualities. In the Avesta, Haoma has the entire Yašt 20 and Yasna 9-11 dedicated to it.

It is described as being prepared by extracting juice from the stalks of a certain plant. In both Vedic and Zoroastrian tradition, the name of the drink and the plant are the same, and also personified as a divinity, the three forming a religious or mythological unity.

There has been much speculation concerning what is most likely to have been the identity of the original plant. There is no consensus on the question, although some Western experts outside the Vedic and Avestan religious traditions now seem to favour a species of Ephedra, perhaps *Ephedra sinica*.*[2]*[3]

8.1 Etymology

Both Soma and the Avestan *Haoma* are thought to be derived from Proto-Indo-Iranian *sauma-. The name of the Scythian tribe *Hauma-varga* is related to the word, and probably connected with the ritual. The word is derived from an Indo-Iranian root *sav- (Sanskrit sav-/su) "to press", i.e. *sau-ma- is the drink prepared by pressing the stalks of a plant. *[4] According to Mayhofer, the root is Proto-Indo-European (*sew(h)-)*[5]

According to Anthony, *Soma* was introduced into Indo-Iranian culture from the Bactria–Margiana Culture. The Old Indic religion probably emerged among Indo-European immigrants in the contact zone between the Zeravshan River (present-day Uzbekistan) and (present-day) Iran.*[6] It was "a syncretic mixture of old Central Asian and new Indo-European elements",*[6] which borrowed "distinctive religious beliefs and practices" *[7] from the Bactria–Margiana Culture.*[7] At least 383 non-Indo-European words were borrowed from this culture, including the god Indra and the ritual drink Soma.*[8] According to Anthony,

Many of the qualities of Indo-Iranian god of might/victory, Verethraghna, were transferred to the adopted god Indra, who became the central deity of the developing Old Indic culture. Indra was the subject of 250 hymns, a quarter of the *Rig Veda*. He was associated more than any other deity with *Soma*, a stimulant drug (perhaps derived from *Ephedra*) probably borrowed from the BMAC religion. His rise to prominence was a peculiar trait of the Old Indic speakers.*[9]

8.2 Vedic Soma

Further information: Somayajna and Mandala 9

In the Vedas, the drink and the plant refer to the same entity. Drinking Soma produces immortality (Amrita, Rigveda

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8.48.3). Indra and Agni are portrayed as consuming Soma in copious quantities. The consumption of Soma by human beings is well attested in Vedic ritual.

The Rigveda (8.48.3) says:

a ápāma sómam amŕtā abhūmâganma jyótir ávidāma devân c kím nūnám asmân kṛṇavad árātiḥ kím u dhūrtír amṛta mártyasya

Ralph T.H. Griffith translates this as:

We have drunk Soma and become immortal; we have attained the light, the Gods discovered. Now what may foeman's malice do to harm us? What, O Immortal, mortal man's deception?

Swami Dayanand Saraswati translates it as:

Som (good fruit containing food not any intoxicating drink) apama (we drink you) amftā abhūmâ (you are elixir of life) jyótir âganma (achieve physical strength or light of god) ávidāma devân (achieve control over senses); kíṃ nūnám asmân kṛṇavad árātiḥ (in this situation, what our internal enemy can do to me)

kím u dhūrtír amṛta mártyasya (god, what even violent people can do to me)

The Ninth Mandala of the Rigveda is known as the **Soma Mandala**. It consists entirely of hymns addressed to **Soma Pavamana** ("purified Soma"). The drink Soma was kept and distributed by the Gandharvas. The Rigveda associates the Sushoma, Arjikiya and other regions with Soma (e.g. 8.7.29; 8.64.10-11). Sharyanavat was possibly the name of a pond or lake on the banks of which Soma could be found. It is described as "green-tinted" and "bright-shining" in the RigVeda. (R.V., 9.42.1 and 9.61.17)

The plant is often described as growing in the mountains (*giristha*, cf. Orestes), notably Mount Mūjavant. It has long stalks, and is of yellow or tawny (*hari*) colour. The drink is prepared by priests pounding the plants with stones. The juice so gathered is filtered through lamb's wool, and mixed with other ingredients (including cow milk) before it is drunk. It is said to "roar". It is said to be the bringer of the gods.

Later, knowledge of the ingredient was lost altogether, and Indian ritual reflects this, in expiatory prayers apologizing to the gods for the use of a substitute plant (somalataa, e.g. the pūtīka) because Soma had become unavailable. In the Vedic ritual Agnistoma (or Somayaga), Soma is to be presented as the main offering.*[10] The substitution of one element in a sacrifice for another was in harmony with an underlying principle of Vedic ritual - the victim is a substitute for the sacrificer.*[11] The texts provide an extensive list of plants that can be used as substitutes and end the list by saying that any plant is acceptable, provided it is yellow.*[12]

8.3 Traditional accounts

The ritual of Somayajna is still held with unbroken continuity in South India. The *Somalatha* (Sanskrit: Soma creeper) which is procured in small quantities from the Himalayan region is used to prepare Soma rasam or Soma juice.*[13] It is also used in these areas in Ayurveda and Siddha medicine streams since time immemorial.*[14] The herb which is used is *Sarcostemma acidum*.

8.4 Avestan Haoma

Main article: Haoma

The finishing of Haoma in Zoroastrianism may be glimpsed from the Avesta (particularly in the $H\bar{o}m$ Yast, Yasna 9), and Avestan language *hauma also survived as middle Persian $h\bar{o}m$. The plant Haoma yielded the essential ingredient for the ritual drink, parahaoma. It is to be noted here that the Persians used the phonetic "Ha" instead of "Sa" in

their language. For example they called river Sarasvati, Haravati; River Sindhu is called Hindu (some believe this is the root of the Hindu nomenclature), and here we see them call Soma - Haoma.

In the *Hōm yašt* of the Avesta, the *Yazata* (divine) Haoma appears to Zoroaster "at the time of pressing" (*havani ratu*) in the form of a beautiful man. Yasna 9.1 and 9.2 exhort him to gather and press Haoma plants. Haoma's epithets include "the Golden-Green One" (*zairi*-, Sanskrit *hari*-), "righteous" (*ašavan*-), "furthering righteousness" (*ašavazah*-), and "of good wisdom" (*hu.xratu*-, Sanskrit *sukratu*-, Cf. Greek Sokrates).

In Yasna 9.22, Haoma grants "speed and strength to warriors, excellent and righteous sons to those giving birth, spiritual power and knowledge to those who apply themselves to the study of the nasks". As the religion's chief cult divinity he came to be perceived as its divine priest. In Yasna 9.26, Ahura Mazda is said to have invested him with the sacred girdle, and in Yasna 10.89, to have installed Haoma as the "swiftly sacrificing *zaotar*" (Sanskrit *hotar*) for himself and the Amesha Spenta. Haoma services were celebrated at least until the 1960s and 1970s in a strongly conservative village near Yazd.

But the Avesta also warns of misuse. He distinguishes between the currently used drug-like Haoma, including Opium, and the *real* Divine Haoma.

8.5 Candidates for the Soma plant

Main article: Botanical identity of Soma-Haoma

There has been much speculation as to the original Proto-Indo-Iranian Sauma plant. It was generally assumed to be entheogenic, based on RV 8.48 cited above (we have attained the light). Many descriptions of Soma are associated with excitation. Soma is associated with the warrior-god Indra, and has been drunk by him before his battle with Vrtra. For these reasons, there are stimulant (amphetamine like) plants as well as entheogenic plants among the candidates that have been suggested. Soma is also often associated with Light and Indra is the "Lord of Light" as shown in the following verses from the RgVeda: RV 8.82.25 For thee, O Lord of Light, are shed these Soma-drops, and grass is strewn. Bring Indra to his worshippers. May Indra give thee skill, and lights of heaven, wealth to his votary. And priests who praise him: laud ye him.

There are several references in the Rig Veda, associating Soma with the visionary seeing of Light e.g. RV 9.4, RV 9.5, RV 9.8, RV 9.10, RV 9.42.

Candidates that have been suggested include honey,*[15] and fly agaric (*Amanita muscaria*), which was widely used among Siberian shamans for its entheogenic properties. Several texts like the Atharvaveda extol the medicinal properties of Soma and he is regarded as the king of medicinal herbs (and also of the Brahmana class).

From the late 1960s onwards, several studies attempted to establish *soma* as a psychoactive substance. A number of proposals were made, including one in 1968 by the American banker R. Gordon Wasson, an amateur ethnomycologist, who asserted that *soma* was an inebriant, and suggested fly-agaric mushroom, *Amanita muscaria*, as the likely candidate. Since its introduction in 1968, this theory has gained both detractors and followers in the anthropological literature.* [16]

Wasson and his co-author, Wendy Doniger O'Flaherty, drew parallels between Vedic descriptions and reports of Siberian uses of the fly-agaric in shamanic ritual.*[17]

Since the late 18th century, when Abraham Hyacinthe Anquetil-Duperron and others made portions of the Avesta available to western scholars, several scholars have sought a representative botanical equivalent of the *haoma* as described in the texts and as used in living Zoroastrian practice. In the late 19th century, the highly conservative Zoroastrians of Yazd (Iran) were found to use Ephedra (*genus* Ephedra), which was locally known as *hum* or *homa* and which they exported to the Indian Zoroastrians.*[18] There are numerous mountain regions in the northwestern Indian subcontinent which have cool and dry conditions where ephedra plants can grow. Later Vedic texts mention that the best soma plants came from Mount Mūjavant, which may be located as in northern Kashmir and in neighboring western Tibet. (Ephedra is not, however, used in any type of sacrificial activity by Hindu priests today, nor is it actively cultivated in the open trade economies of South Asia.)

In 1989 Harry Falk noted that, in the texts, both *haoma* and *soma* were said to enhance alertness and awareness, did not coincide with the consciousness altering effects of an entheogen, and that "there is nothing shamanistic or visionary either in early Vedic or in Old Iranian texts", (Falk, 1989) Falk made a crucial error is assuming that ephedra reacts like ephedrine; ephedra is less like adrenaline and more a potent bronchodilator. Falk also asserted that the

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three varieties of ephedra that yield ephedrine (*geradiana*, *major procera* and *intermedia*) also have the properties attributed to *haoma* by the texts of the Avesta. (Falk, 1989) At the conclusion of the 1999 Haoma-Soma workshop in Leiden, Jan E. M. Houben writes: "despite strong attempts to do away with ephedra by those who are eager to see *sauma as a hallucinogen, its status as a serious candidate for the Rigvedic Soma and Avestan Haoma still stands" (Houben, 2003).

The Graeco-Russian archeologist Viktor Sarianidi claims to have discovered vessels and mortars used to prepare Soma in 'Zoroastrian temples' in Bactria. He claims that the vessels have revealed residues and seed impressions left behind during the preparation of Soma. This has not been sustained by subsequent investigations.*[19] As noted by Sarianidi, Bakels' examination of the material took place after several years of exposure in the open air and elements, which could well have caused the decomposition of the cannabis remains in the gypsum from inside the ancient clay vessels. There is a clear possibility that as with the seed impressions, which we have shown were clearly cannabis, Bakels is once again mistaken. For alternatively, as Mark Merlin, who revisited the subject of the identity of Soma more than thirty years after originally writing about it*[20] in light of Sarianidi's finds, has pointed out: "According to Miller (2003), photographs of the Ephedra, Cannabis, and Papaver, and archaeological specimens presented in the Togolok-21 report by Meyer-Melikyan (1990), appear to be consistent with the respective species; however, the determination of the Papaver species needs further study to confirm that it is P. somniferum." (Merlin, 2008)*[21] Besides the residue of ephedra, the archeologists discovered the residues of Poppy seeds and Cannabis. The vessels also had impressions created by Cannabis seeds. Cannabis is well known in India as Bhang and sometimes Poppy seeds are used with Bhang to make the ritual drink *Bhang Ki Thandai*.

In his Book 'Cannabis and The Soma Solution' (2010), Chris Bennett, disputes the amanita muscaria and Syrian Rue theories in detail, although partially accepting the Ephedra identification, and asserts the solution is hemp, suggesting that recent finds of 2,700 year old cannabis with the mummified remains of a shaman the Indo-European Gushi culture in China, led to the adoption of the Chinese term for cannabis Hu-Ma, and this became Haoma in the Bactria region Sarianidi found evidence of cannabis at ancient temple sites, referred to above, becoming Soma in India.* [22]

The view that Soma was cannabis has been held by a variety of Indian authors, most prominently by Chandra Chakraberty who has made this association clear in a number of different books; "Soma was... made of the flowering tops and resins of Cannabis sativa which is an aphrodisiac and stimulant, and a nourishing food..." (Chakraberty, 1952*[23]); "Soma.... Cannabis sativa... a nervine aphrodisiac" (Chakraberty, 1963; 1967); [24] "Of all the plants Soma (Cannabis indica) is the king (X, 97,19)" (Chakraberty, 1944); "...[I]t is safe to conclude that Soma is Cannabis sativa" (Chakraberty, 1944).*[25]

The view of cannabis as soma was also put forth by Joseph Chandra Ray, 'The Soma Plant' (1939)*[26] and B. L. Mukherjee (1921)*[27] and they are far from alone amongst Indian researchers who have regarded the identity of Soma with hemp; "...the plant now known as Bhanga in India (Indian hemp)... was used as H(a)oma or Soma" (Shrirama, 1999);*[28] "Soma (a kind of hemp)" (Ramachandran and Mativāṇaṇ, 1991);*[29] "Soma was a national drink. This was a green herb which was brought from the mountain and pounded ceremoniously with stones. It was mixed with milk and honey and drunk. Probably this was a type of hemp (Bhang···) which is still drunk by some people in India" (Vikramasiṃha, 1967).*[30]

In 1976, the Indian botanist B. G. L. Swamy, put forth cannabis as a candidate for Soma in a well thought out, but little recognized, article The Rg Vedic Soma Plant, in the Indian Journal of History of Science. Swamy built on the presentations of Mukherjee (1921) and Ray (1939) noting that the Vedic descriptions of the plant indicated leaves, stalks and branches; that Soma was green, hari; that cannabis grows wild in areas associated with the Aryan ancestors of the Vedic authors such as the "Caspian sea, in Siberia, in the desert of Kirghiz. It is also referred to as wild in Central and Southern Russia and to the south of the Caucasus... it is almost wild in Persia and it appears to be quite wild on the Western Himalayas and Kashmir" (Swamy, 1976); that Soma was pulverized, filtered and consumed immediately as with the Indian beverage bhang, noting that it must "be borne in mind that there were three pressings in a day and that the juice once expressed was useless for a second offering...Therefore, the brief interval between pressing and consuming is too short a period for fermentation to set in, even should the juice be mixed with milk, curd, etc.... It was essential not only to soak them [the branches] in water but also pound the pieces with stones in order to express the juice.... The dry twigs of Soma (Cannabis) were soaked in water; crushed in flowing water; the last washing was filtered and used almost immediately..." (Swamy, 1976) Based on such clearly thought out evidence B. G. L. Swamy rightly felt that: "The summation of evidence leads to the irresistible conclusion that the Rg-vedic Soma was prepared from Cannabis sativus" (Swamy, 1976).*[31]

In The RgVedic Soma, the indigenous Vedic scholar Dr. N.R. Waradpande, who identified cannabis as the ancient sacred drink, suggests that based on the Vedic meaning of the words involved in the descriptions given in the 9th and 10th Mandalas of the Rig Veda, the Soma plant was an indigenous Indian plant with roots, branches, leaves, and resin on the leaves and flowers . "The Soma in the Rgveda is unmistakably hemp and its derivatives marijuana and

hashish" (Waradpande, 1995).*[32]

"... Waradpande has highlighted with great ingenuity three interesting issues, namely, 1) repudiation of the mush-room and urine theory of Richard Wasson, 2) identification of Soma as hemp-plant, and its three products, hemp-juice (vamsu), marijuana and hashish (charas), and 3) interpretation of the Rgvedic mantras referring to Soma.... Waradpande ingeniously agitates that the Soma plant was an indigenous Indian plant with roots, branches, leaves, resin on the leaves and flowers on the basis of the hymns RV* 10.85,3; 9,86,46; 9.5,1; 9.25,2; 9.38,2; 9.67; 9.61,13; 9,70,1 and so on, He demonstrates that 'all these verses can be interpreted as referring to both the Soma plant and the Moon' and the adjectives referring to them can be interpreted accordingly. The descriptive characteristics of the Soma plant and the physio-psychological effects caused on consumption of the Soma can be compared with the contemporary knowledge about the intoxicating drugs hemp, marijuana and hashish. The leaf (patra) of the hemp plant is called bhanga (Hindi biarig), the flower (puspamanjari) ganja and the resin (niryasa) charas. Because of its medicinal qualities it is also called vijaya, jaja and matulai and because of intoxicating qualities it is called bhanga, madini and ganja. He concludes that Soma was nothing but bhang, 'hemp' and it was consumed by the Vedic Aryans in three ways, as a hemp-juice (soma-rasa) by drinking, the flowers of hemp known as marijuana by smoking and the resin on leaves known as hashish by smoking." *[33]

Dr. Waradpande believes that by the time of the Indian commentator Sayana (died 1387) the identification of the Soma was lost, explaining that if Sayana had known that Soma was hemp, he would not have been puzzled by the description of Soma as samiddha, i.e., kindled and as being 'blown' or 'puffed', now it is common practice to smoke bhanga as well as drink it, (Waradpande, 1995). Waradpande feels much of the confusion is due to the fact that many Vedic terms remain obscure regarding their derivation and denotation for want of adequate knowledge of the contemporary Vedic society. Patanjali, the grammarian of second century B.C. recorded that even during his time some of the Vedic words were considered to be obscure. Sayana's interpretations of Vedic terms are also doubted by later Western as well as Indian scholars. Besides the language factor, Waradpande feels that the loss of the knowledge of Soma's identity was through the decline of the Vedic ritual, the Yajna, which came about under the influence and development of Buddhism. (Waradpande, 1995).*[32]

In his book *Food of the Gods*, ethnobotanist Terence McKenna postulates that the most likely candidate for Soma is the mushroom Psilocybe cubensis, a hallucinogenic mushroom that grows in cow dung in certain climates. In India, Wasson identified *Psilocybe cubenis* as "easily identified and gathered, and are effective", and went so far as to hypothesize, "the possible role of Stropharia cubensis growing in the dung of cattle in the lives of the lower orders remains to this day wholly unexplored. Is *P. cubensis* responsible for the elevation of the cow to a sacred status?" McKenna cites both Wasson's and his own unsuccessful attempts using *Amanita muscaria* to reach a psychedelic state as evidence that it could not have inspired the worship and praise of Soma. McKenna further points out that the 9th mandala of the Rig Veda makes extensive references to the cow as the embodiment of soma. He draws comparison to other cultures who venerate the source of the ecstatic state such as the Chavin in Meso-America who venerate the cactus as the source of peyote.

In his 2005 book *Amanita Muscaria; Herb of Immortality* Donald E. Teeter has expanded upon Wasson's work and extends Soma to include other Indo-European ritual foods and drink. These include: Haoma, Ambrosia, Nectar the Wine of Dionysus, the Christian Holy Host, and communion wine, among others.

Teeter also proposes and experimentally tests a mechanism for the reported uses and ceremonies associated with these rituals, as well as accounting for the mechanism of the Holy grail and similar bountiful religious artifacts mentioned in historical references.

Teeter records success with his use of Amanita muscaria and his experiments to duplicate the described occurrences surrounding the production, use and effects described for Soma and the Grail.*[34]

8.6 Contemporary Hinduism

See also: Chandra

In Hindu art, the god Soma was depicted as a bull or bird, and sometimes as an embryo, but rarely as an adult human. In Hinduism, the god Soma evolved into a lunar deity. Full moon is the time to collect and press the divine drink. The moon is also the cup from which the gods drink Soma, thus identifying Soma with the moon god Chandra. A waxing moon meant Soma was recreating himself, ready to be drunk again. Alternatively, Soma's twenty-seven wives were the star goddesses, the Nakshatras - daughters of the cosmic progenitor Daksha - who told their father that he paid too much attention to just one of them, Rohini. Daksha subsequently cursed Soma to wither and die, but the wives

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intervened and the death became periodic and temporary, and is symbolized by the waxing and waning of the moon. Monday is called *Somavāram* in Sanskrit and modern Indian languages, such as Hindi, Bengali, Kannada, Marathi, Nepali and Telugu, and alludes to the importance of this god in Hindu spirituality.

The Sushruta Samhita localizes the best Soma in the upper Indus and Kashmir region.*[35]

The Maharishi Mahesh Yogi's Transcendental Meditation-Sidhi Program involves a notion of "Soma", allegedly based on the Rigveda.*[36]*[37]

8.7 Western reception

In Western artistic and cultural depictions, Soma often refers to some form of intoxicating drug.

In the 19th century, John Greenleaf Whittier wrote a poem called *The Brewing of Soma*. The last part speaks of how Christians should draw near to God without such things as soma. This part of the poem has been made into a well-known hymn, "Dear Lord and Father of Mankind".

Soma is the name of a fictional drug in Aldous Huxley's 1932 novel, *Brave New World*. In the novel the drug produces both intoxicating and psychoactive properties and is used in celebratory rituals. It is described as "All of the benefits of Christianity and alcohol without their defects." Another drug derived from mountain growing mushrooms is featured in his 1962 novel, *Island*, in which it is used in a Hindu-based religious ceremony worshipping the god Shiva. Called moksha medicine it is portrayed in a positive light, as a key to enlightenment.

In the books *Junkie* and *Naked Lunch*, author William S. Burroughs refers to soma as a non-addictive, high-quality form of opium said to exist in ancient India.

In Neil Gaiman's novel *American Gods*, soma is referred to as "concentrated prayer", a drink enjoyed by the gods (who feed on people's worship), such as Odin.

The single "Soma" by the indie rock band The Strokes focuses on soma and its effects.

Smashing Pumpkins have a song called Soma on their 1993 Album "Siamese Dream"

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Adamant

For other uses of adamant, adamantium, and similar terms, see Adamant (disambiguation).

Adamant and similar words are used to refer to any especially hard substance, whether composed of diamond, some other gemstone, or some type of metal. Both *adamant* and *diamond* derive from the Greek word αδαμαστος (*adamastos*), meaning "untameable". *Adamantite* and *adamantium* (a metallic name derived from the Neo-Latin ending -*ium*) are also common variants.

Adamantine has, throughout ancient history, referred to anything that was made of a very hard material. Virgil describes Tartarus as having a screeching gate protected by columns of solid adamantine (Aeneid book VI). Later, by the Middle Ages, the term came to refer to diamond, as it was the hardest material then known, and remains the hardest non-synthetic material known.

It was in the Middle Ages, too, that adamantine hardness and the lodestone's magnetic properties became confused and combined, leading to an alternate definition in which "adamant" means magnet, falsely derived from the Latin *adamare*, which means to love or be attached to.*[1] Another connection was the belief that adamant (the diamond definition) could block the effects of a magnet. This was addressed in chapter III of Pseudodoxia Epidemica, for instance.

Since the word *diamond* is now used for the hardest gemstone, the increasingly archaic term "adamant" has a mostly poetic or figurative use. In that capacity, the name is frequently used in popular media and fiction to refer to a very hard substance.

9.1 Adamant and Adamantine in mythology

- In Greek Mythology, Kronos castrated his father Uranus using an adamant sickle given to him by his mother Gaia.*[2] An adamantine sickle or sword was also used by the hero Perseus to decapitate the Gorgon Medusa while she slept.
- In the Greek Tragedy, Prometheus Bound translated by G. M. Cookson, Hephaestus is to bind Prometheus "to the jagged rocks in adamantine bonds infrangible."
- In John Milton's epic poem *Paradise Lost* adamant or adamantine is mentioned eight times. First in Book 1, Satan is hurled "to bottomless perdition, there to dwell in adamantine chains and penal fire"(lines 47-48). Three times in Book 2 the gates of hell are described as being made of adamantine (lines 436, 646 and 853). In Book 6, Satan "Came towring [sic], armd [sic] in Adamant and Gold" (line 110), his shield is described as "of tenfold adamant" (line 255), and the armor worn by the fallen angels is described as "adamantine" (line 542). Finally in book 10 the metaphorical "Pinns [sic] of Adamant and Chains" (lines 318-319) bind the world to Satan, and thus to sin and death*[3]
- In some versions of the Alexander Romance, Alexander the Great builds walls of Adamantine, the Gates of Alexander, to keep the giants Gog and Magog from pillaging the peaceful southern lands.

9.2 In fiction and popular culture

9.2.1 Adamant

- In John Donne's Holy Sonnet I he states in line 14, "And thou like adamant draw mine iron heart".
- In the Medieval epic poem The Faerie Queene, Sir Artegal's sword is made of Adamant.
- In William Shakespeare's A Midsummer Night's Dream, Helena says to Demetrius, "You draw me, you hard-hearted adamant!".
- In J. R. R. Tolkien's *The Lord of the Rings* it is said in the second verse of Bilbo's Song of Eärendil, regarding the appearance of Eärendil; "Of adamant his helmet tall". At the crowning of King Elessar, it is said that his crown "was adorned with jewels of adamant". Also, Nenya, one of the Three Rings of Power, was described as the Ring of Adamant, once again the Dark Tower Barad-dûr is described as being a tower of adamant crowned with iron.
- In Philip Pullman's His Dark Materials trilogy, Lord Asriel constructs an "adamant" fortress.
- In Mohandas K. Gandhi's autobiography, he reflects on the beauty of compromise in deciding not to fight for the right to wear a turban in the Supreme Court of South Africa. He states that "truth is hard as adamant and tender as a blossom".
- In Princess Ida, by Gilbert and Sullivan, the hardnosed princess's castle is called Castle Adamant.
- In *Pokémon Diamond* and *Pearl*, there is an obtainable item called the 'Adamant Orb' which raises the dragon and steel type attacks of Dialga. The item looks more like a diamond gemstone rather than metal.
- In the MMORPG *RuneScape*, adamant is a green colored metal smelted from one part adamantite ore and six parts coal. It is the second strongest metal in the free version of the game and is the second strongest metal that can be forged and smithed by players in both the free and member version. Adamantite is an ore found in various mining locations in small quantities. Once an adamant bar is smelted, it can be smithed to make armor and weapons.
- In Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* (Part III), the base of the fictitious flying island of Laputa is made of Adamant
- In Kingdom Hearts, one of the shields you can equip to Goofy is called the "Adamant Shield".
- In the role playing game Exalted, adamant is a rare magical material used in some artifacts. It is a diamond-like substance with electroconductive properties.
- In the fantasy book series Fablehaven, Adamant is a very strong and light weight metal that has been magically
 enchanted.
- In the novel *The Book of the Dead* by Douglas Preston and Lincoln Child, Adamant is among various goods inside of an Egyptian tomb on display in the New York Museum of Natural History.
- Team ADAMANT is a semi-professional team in the online first-person shooter *Counter-Strike: Global Offen-sive* by Valve.
- In "The Mortal Instruments (novel)" by Cassandra Clare, the demon-hunting Nephilim use weapons made of Adamas, forged by the Iron Sisters in the Adamant Citadel. The material is tough, slightly transparent, whitishblue, and glows with angelic power. It is also the material used to construct the Nephilim's home city and its demon warding towers.
- In Final Fantasy adamant was an item found in Tiamat's flying castle that could be taken back to the dwarves in their mine and be used to forge Excalibur, the game's second strongest weapon.

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9.2.2 Adamantine

• In Mary Shelley's novella *Mathilda*, the author writes, "It required hands stronger than mine; stronger I do believe than any human force to break the thick, adamantine chain that has bound me".

- In the 1950s movie *Forbidden Planet*, Edward Morbius refers to structures that the Krell Civilization created that were made of "adamantine steel."
- Jack London's *White Fang*: Part IV: The Superior Gods: Chapter 6: The Love-Master contains the text "the fibre of him had become tough and knotty; when the warp and the woof of him had made of him an adamantine texture, harsh and unyielding;"
- In Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, Tom Sawyer's aunt's resolve becomes "adamantine in its firmness".
- The short story "Creatures of the Light," by Sophie Wenzel Ellis, appearing in February 1930's *Astounding Stories of Super Science*, contains the sentence, "Yet, for all his experience with hero worshippers to put an adamantine crust on his sensibilities, he grew warm-eared under the gaze of these two strangers."
- In the *Dungeons & Dragons* game universe, adamantine is an ultra-hard, expensive, rare metal found only in meteorites and veins in magical areas, used to fashion high-quality weapons and armor.
- In *Dwarf Fortress*, a simulator game, adamantine is the rarest and most valuable mineral in existence. It can be used to forge the sharpest of weapons and strongest of armors. Unlike its common green in other accounts, adamantine in Dwarf Fortress is a very bright blue. It is nearly weightless, though this has caused improvements to the game's physics modelling to cripple adamantine warhammers and other blunt weaponry. Adamantine is also a trap for the proud. Dwarves following an adamantine vein will eventually dig too deep and breach "hell".
- In the MMORPG *Lineage II*, adamantine is a rare material required to craft the highest grade weapons in the game, Icarus and Dynasty weapons.
- Ratchet & Clank features armor made of Adamantine, a metal that was to be said "the hardest in the galaxy."
- In the *Tales of Symphonia* game, the Eternal Ring that Dirk forges for Lloyd is made of Adamantine and sacred wood.
- In Patapon 2, you can use Adamantine from your Altar or inventory. This material can be forged and is similar
 to mithril.
- In Meredith Ann Pierce's Darkangel Trilogy, the blade Adamantine was forged by the Ancients and is the only weapon that can kill a darkangel.
- In *Naruto*, adamantine is referred in name of techniques used by summoned character Monkey King Enma. Adamantine clearly mentioned for its hardness. In one technique Enma can transform into a stick which is hard as Adamantine.
- In *GemStone IV*, adamantine is a very rare, very heavy, and extremely strong metal. A successful parry with an adamantine weapon has the potential to shatter the other weapon.

9.2.3 Other variants

- In the travels of John Mandeville, he makes mention of a certain material upon which diamonds grow on his travels to India.
- In the Games Workshop game universe of Warhammer 40,000, adamantium is a fairly common alloy used in Imperial weaponry and heavy armour.
- In the Marvel Comics universe, adamantium is a metal alloy which, once forged (and allowed to cool, as heard in X-Men 2), is effectively indestructible. The metal is costly to produce and exceptionally rare. It is typically portrayed within Marvel comic books as used to create weaponry such as bullets used by various covert agencies, a triangular shield used by the vigilante known as Battlestar, and the outer skin of some of the robotic bodies of the android Ultron. It is most famously known for being bonded to the skeleton and bone claws of the X-Men character Wolverine.

9.3. SEE ALSO 47

 Adiamante is an artificial material in the eponymous 1996 science fiction novel by L. E. Modesitt, Jr., used for the hulls of military spacecraft.

- Final Fantasy also features armor made of adamantite on occasion. In the fifth installment specifically it is a
 material from 'another world' able to contain great amounts of energy.
- In R. A. Salvatore's *Dark Elf* books (based on the Dungeons & Dragons universe), adamantite is the preferred material for drow weaponry.
- In the MMORPG World of Warcraft, Adamantite is gathered from fairly uncommon veins in Outland, and used for productions of various weapons and armor, both uncommon, rare and epic.
- In the MMORPG, Maplestory, adamantium ore can be obtained by killing various monsters and be made into a bar of adamantium to upgrade weapons and armours into stronger substitutes.
- In the RPG expansion The Elder Scrolls III: Tribunal, adamantite is a usable substance that can be acquired, and forged (not by the player) into a protective armor.
- In the Inuyasha dub the name Adamant Barrage is given to an attack that shoots diamonds at the opponent using the Tessaiga, the sword used by the title character. In the episode The Demon Protector of the Sacred Jewel Shard, a demon named Hosenki is covered in an armor made up of what is called adamantite. Kagome asks Myoga if he means diamond, but he does not know what she is talking about.
- In the video game series Harvest Moon (series), an ore and item upgrade level is named 'Adamantite'. It is usually the highest-level upgrade.
- In the game *Terraria*, adamantite is a red ore you find near the end of the game. It can be made into adamantite bars (at an adamantite forge), then into armor, drills, and other things.
- In The Sims Medieval, adamantle is one of the metals that can be mined and forged by a Blacksmith.
- In Square Enix's The World Ends With You, adamantite is in the form of a pin and can be obtained from various types of Noise. It is used as an exchange material, and like other materials, can only be traded in when it is mastered.

9.3 See also

- aggregated diamond nanorods, ultrahard, nanocrystalline form of diamond
- Adamant, Vermont, a village in Washington County, Vermont, USA
- adamantane, a bulky hydrocarbon
- adamant, a noun defined at Wiktionary
- adamantine, an adjective defined at Wiktionary
- adamantine, a real mineral
- · adamantium, a fictional substance in the Marvel Universe
- mithril, a strong, silvery fictional metal from J. R. R. Tolkien's The Lord of the Rings
- unobtanium, a name given to exotic, fictional materials used in science fiction
- Adam Ant, musician

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Winged unicorn

A **winged unicorn** is a fictional horse with wings and the horn of a unicorn. There is no specific name given to such creature, but it is sometimes referred to using a portmanteau of pegasus and unicorn: pegacorn. In some literature and media, it is also referred to as an **alicorn**, which is a historical word for the horn of a unicorn.*[1]

Winged unicorns have made many appearances in art. Ancient Achaemenid Assyrian seals bear depictions of winged unicorns and winged bulls as representations of evil.*[2]*[3]

Irish poet W. B. Yeats wrote of imagining a winged beast that he associated with laughing, ecstatic destruction. The beast took the form of a winged unicorn in his 1907 play *The Unicorn from the Stars* and later that of the rough beast slouching towards Bethlehem in his poem The Second Coming.*[4]

In the continuity of Hasbro's *My Little Pony* and its related media after 2010 (including its *My Little Pony: Friendship Is Magic* television series), winged unicorns*[note 1] play a role as ponies of royal status.

10.1 Gallery

- British Airborne Units' logo
- A winged unicorn on the Manège d'Andréa

10.2 Notes

[1] In the early episodes of the *My Little Pony: Friendship Is Magic* television series, the species is not specifically named; for example, the sisters Celestia and Luna were referred as unicorns in first season's première episode "Friendship Is Magic - part 1" despite having wings.*[5] However, an amulet with a pair of wings and a horned head of a horse is referred as the "Alicorn Amulet" in the third season's fifth episode "Magic Duel" (written by M. A. Larson), *[6] and the species is explicitly named "alicorn" in its season finale "Magical Mystery Cure" (also written by Larson).*[7]

10.3 References

- [1] Shepard, Odell (1930). The Lore of the Unicorn. London: Unwin and Allen. ISBN 9781437508536.
- [2] Brown, Robert (2004). The Unicorn: A Mythological Investigation. Kessinger Publishing. p. 18. ISBN 9780766185302.
- [3] Von Der Osten, Hans Henning (June 1931). "The Ancient Seals from the Near East in the Metropolitan Museum: Old and Middle Persian Seals". *The Art Bulletin* **13** (2): 221–41. JSTOR 3050798.
- [4] Ward, David (Spring 1982). "Yeats's Conflicts With His Audience, 1897-1917". ELH 49 (1): 155-6. JSTOR 2872885.
- [5] Faust, Lauren. "Friendship Is Magic part 1". My Little Pony: Friendship Is Magic. Season 1. Hasbro Studios.
- [6] Larson, M. A.. "Magic Duel" . My Little Pony: Friendship Is Magic. Season 3. Hasbro Studios.
- [7] Larson, M. A.. "Magical Mystery Cure". My Little Pony: Friendship Is Magic. Season 3. Hasbro Studios.

Alkahest

"Alcahest" redirects here. For a video game that was only released in Japan, see Alcahest (video game).

Alkahest is a hypothetical **universal solvent**, having the power to dissolve every other substance, including gold. It was much sought after by alchemists for what they thought would be its invaluable medicinal qualities.

11.1 Ideology

The name is believed to have been invented by Paracelsus from Switzerland, who modeled it on similar words taken from Arabic, such as 'alkali'. Paracelsus' own recipe was based on caustic lime, alcohol, and carbonate of potash.*[1] He believed that this element alkahest was, in fact, the philosopher's stone.

11.2 Issues with a "universal solvent"

A potential problem involving alkahest is that, if it dissolves everything, then it cannot be placed into a container because it would dissolve the container. However, the alchemist Philalethes specifies that alkahest dissolves only composed material into their constituent, elemental, parts.*[2] The old remark, "Spit is the universal solvent" mocks a very old idea that, somewhere, there might be found a solvent that will dissolve anything. In modern times, water is sometimes called the universal solvent as well, because it can dissolve a large variety of substances, due to its chemical polarity.

11.3 Paracelsus' successor

A later great alchemist named van Helmont picked up where Paracelsus had left off, in his major texts he also gave attention to transmutation of metals, to techniques for separating the pure from the impure parts of nature, and, of special significance, to a substance, called the liquor alkahest, which he accepted as one of the greatest secrets of Paracelsus and which he referred to as incorruptible dissolving water that could reduce any body into its first matter.

Van Helmont's writings point to even earlier medieval descriptions of a substance called sal alkali. Sal alkali, in turn, appears to have been a solution of caustic potash in alcohol, which reduces many substances. Helmont describes a process in which his alkahest -- this sal alkali -- is applied to olive oil. The result was identified as a sweet oil, which would have been glycerol.*[3]

11.4 See also

- Azoth
- · Aqua regia

50 CHAPTER 11. ALKAHEST



Image of Alchimia, the embodiment of Alchemy Woodcut published by Leonhard Thurneysser in 1574. Thurneysser was a student of Paracelsus.

• Grey goo

11.5 Notes

[1] Paracelsus' recipe is popular with chemists even today; a bath of potassium hydroxide in ethanol leaves laboratory glassware sparkling clean

11.5. NOTES 51

[2] Philalethes, Eirenaeus. "The Secret of the Immortal Liquor Called Alkahest or Ignis-Aqua" . Retrieved 14 May 2014.

[3] Leinhard, John. "No.1569 Alkahest" . University of Houston. Retrieved 14 May 2014.

Azoth

Azoth was considered to be a universal medicine or universal solvent sought in alchemy $^*[1]$ (similar to other alchemical idealized substance, alkahest, that like azoth was the aim, goal and vision of many alchemical works it was to achieve). Its symbol was the Caduceus and so the term, which being originally a term for an occult formula sought by alchemists much like the philosopher's stone, became a poetic word for the element mercury, the name is Medieval Latin, an alteration of azoc being originally derived from Arabic $al-z\bar{a}'b\bar{u}q$ "the mercury".

12.1 Basis

Azoth is the essential agent of transformation in alchemy. It is the name given by ancient alchemists to Mercury, the animating spirit hidden in all matter that makes transmutation possible. The spelling consists of the initial letter of the English, Greek and Hebrew alphabets followed by the final letters of the English alphabet (Z), the Greek alphabet (Omega) and the Hebrew alphabet (Tau). The word comes from the Arabic al- $z\bar{a}$ ' $b\bar{u}q$ which means "Mercury". The word occurs in the writings of many early alchemists, such as Zosimos, Mary the Jewess, Olympiodorus, and Jābir ibn Hayyān (Geber).

12.1.1 In texts

The word Azoth is also related to the Ain Soph (ultimate substance) of the Kabbalah. In his masterwork *The Secret Teachings of All Ages*. Manly P. Hall explained this connection: "The universe is surrounded by the sphere of light or stars. Beyond that sphere is Schamayim (שמים), the Hebrew word for "heaven", who is the Divine Fiery Water, the first outflow of the Word of God, the flaming river pouring from the presence of the eternal mind. Schamayim, who is this fiery Androgyne, divides. His Fire becomes Solar fire and his Water becomes Lunar water in our universe. Schamayim is the Universal Mercury or Azoth -- the measureless spirit of life. That original spiritual fiery water comes through Eden ("vapor" in Hebrew) and pours itself into the four main rivers of the four Elements. This comprises the River of Living Water—the Azoth—or fiery mercurial essence, that flows out from the throne of God and Lamb. In this Eden (vaporous essence or mist) is the first or spiritual Earth, the incomprehensible and intangible dust out of which God formed Adam Kadmon, the spiritual body of man, which must become fully revealed through time."

In his book Transcendental Magic, Eliphas Levi wrote: "The Azoth or Universal Medicine is, for the soul, is supreme reason and absolute justice; for the mind, it is mathematical and practical truth; for the body it is the quintessence, which is a combination of gold and light. In the superior or spiritual world, it is the First Matter of the Great Work, the source of the enthusiasm and activity of the alchemist. In the intermediate or mental world, it is intelligence and industry. In the inferior or material world, it is physical labor. Sulfur, Mercury, and Salt, which, volatized and fixed alternately, compose the Azoth of the sages. Sulfur corresponds to the elementary form of Fire, Mercury to Air and Water, Salt to Earth."



Fourth woodcut illustration from Basil Valentine's Azoth (1659).

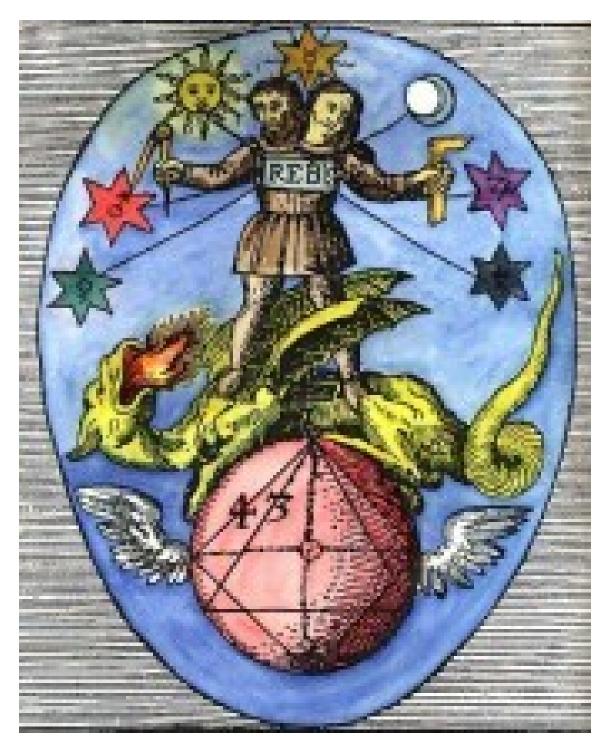
12.2 Life and the Universe

Known as the Universal Solvent, Universal Cure, and Elixir of Life (elixir vitae), the Azoth is said to embody all medicines, as well as the first principles of all other substances. The 16th century alchemist Paracelsus was said to have achieved the Azoth, and in portraits of him carrying his sword, the inscription "Azoth" can be seen on the pommel or handle. It is said he kept the infallible remedy handy in a concealed compartment in the handle in case he needed it in an emergency or if he was injured in a fight. He said it was the "counter poison" to any physical, mental, or spiritual threat.

As the Universal Life Force, the Azoth is not only the animating energy (spiritus animatus) of the body but is also the inspiration and enthusiasm that moves the mind. In the cosmos and within each of us, the Azoth is the mysterious evolutionary force responsible for the relentless drive towards physical and spiritual perfection. Thus, the concept of the Azoth is analogous to the light of nature or mind of God.

Because the Azoth contains the complete information of the whole universe, it is also used as another word for the

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Sixth woodcut from the series in Basil Valentine's Azoth

Philosopher's Stone. One of the hints for the preparation of the Stone is Ignis et Azoth tibi sufficient ("Fire and Azoth are sufficient"). There are scores of esoteric drawings depicting the Azoth and how it is used in the Great Work of alchemy. Examples include the Azoth of the Philosophers by Basil Valentine and the Hieroglyphic Monad of Dr. John Dee.

The term was considered by occultist Aleister Crowley to represent a unity of beginning and ending by tying together the first and last letters of the alphabets of antiquity;*[2] A/Alpha/Alef (first character of Latin, Greek & Hebrew), Z (final character in Latin), O as Omega (final character in Greek) and Th as Tau (final character in Hebrew). In this way permeation and totality of beginning and end was symbolised to consider the supreme wholeness and thus the universal synthesis of opposites as a 'cancellation' (i.e. solvent) or cohesion (i.e. medicine), and in such a way is

12.3. SEE ALSO 55

similar to the philosophical "absolute" of Hegel's dialectic. Crowley further made reference in his works referring to Azoth as "the fluid" calling it the universal solvent or universal medicine of the medieval alchemical philosophers, as a unifier or unification of a certain extreme instance beholden to a contradict, unreconcilable nature if otherwise sought apart of the philosophical ideal of Azoth.

12.3 See also

- Anima mundi
- Panacea (medicine)
- Prima materia
- Viriditas

12.4 References

- [1] "Definition of Azoth" . Merriam-Webster Dictionary. Retrieved 22 July 2013.
- [2] Crowley, Aleister (1996). The Magical Diaries of Aleister Crowley: Tunisia 1923. Weiser Books. pp. 229-230.
- Crowley, Aleister. 777 And Other Qabalistic Writings of Aleister Crowley. York Beach, ME: Samuel Weiser, 1977. ISBN 0-87728-670-1.

12.5 External links

- Interpretation of Azoth of the Philosophers (by Dennis William Hauck)
- What is the Azoth? and The Azoth Ritual at azothalchemy.org

Eitr

Eitr is a mythical substance in Norse mythology. This liquid substance is the origin of all living things: the first giant Ymir was conceived from eitr. The substance is supposed to be very poisonous and is also produced by Jörmungandr (the Midgard serpent) and other serpents.

13.1 Etymology

The word **eitr** exists in most North Germanic languages (all derived from the Old Norse language) in Icelandic/Faroese *eitur*, in Danish *edder*, in Swedish *etter*. Cognates also exist in Dutch *etter* (pus), in German *Eiter* (*pus*), in Old Saxon *ĕttar*, in Old English *ăttor*. The word is broadly translated: *poisonous*, *evil*, *bad*, *angry*, *sinister* etc.*[1]

The word is used in common Scandinavian folklore as a synonym for snake poison.*

13.2 Ymir

In Vafþrúðnismál Odin asks the Giant Vafþrúðnir about the origin of Ymir. Vafþrúðnir answers:

Ór Élivagom stukko eitrdropar, svá óx, unz varð ór iötunn; þar órar ættir kómu allar saman, því er þat æ allt til atalt.

Rough translation:

From Éliwaves
Eitrdrops splashed
that grew into a giant
who begat all families
from which all [giants] come
that is why we are easily angered

The last line of the stanza in *Vafþrúðnismál* where Vafþrúðnir says "that is why we are easily angered", is a word-play with the meaning of the word *eitr*, as it also means *angerlangry* (similar to "poison a relationship").*[1]

13.3. POPULAR CULTURE 57

13.3 Popular Culture

In Tomb Raider: Underworld, which features a storyline heavily influenced by Norse Mythology, eitr plays an important part of the plot.

13.4 References

[1] Svenska Akademiens Ordbok, entry for Etter

13.5 External links

• Snorra-Edda: Gylfaginning

Elixir of life



The mythological White Hare making the elixir of immortality on the Moon, from East Asian mythology.

The **elixir of life**, also known as **elixir of immortality** and sometimes equated with the philosopher's stone, is a mythical potion that, when drunk from a certain cup at a certain time, supposedly grants the drinker eternal life

14.1. HISTORY 59

and/or eternal youth. The elixir of life was also said to be able to create life. Related to the myths of Thoth and Hermes Trismegistus, both of whom in various tales are said to have drunk "the white drops" (liquid gold) and thus achieved immortality, it is mentioned in one of the Nag Hammadi texts.*[1] Alchemists in various ages and cultures sought the means of formulating the elixir.

14.1 History

14.1.1 China



Xu Fu's first expedition to the Mount of the immortals. By Utagawa Kuniyoshi.

In ancient China, various emperors sought the fabled elixir with varying results. In the Qin Dynasty, Qin Shi Huang sent Taoist alchemist Xu Fu with 500 young men and 500 young women to the eastern seas to find the elixir, but he never came back (legend has it that he found Japan instead). When Shi Huang Di visited, he brought 3000 young girls and boys, but none of them ever returned.

The ancient Chinese believed that ingesting long-lasting precious substances such as jade, cinnabar or hematite would confer some of that longevity on the person who consumed them. Gold was considered particularly potent, as it was a non-tarnishing precious metal; the idea of potable or drinkable gold is found in China by the end of the third century BC. The most famous Chinese alchemical book, the Danjing yaojue (Essential Formulas of Alchemical Classics) attributed to Sun Simiao (c. 581—c. 682 CE),*[2]*[3] a famous medical specialist respectfully called "King of Medicine" by later generations, discusses in detail the creation of elixirs for immortality (mercury, sulfur, and the salts of mercury and arsenic are prominent, and most are ironically poisonous) as well as those for curing certain diseases and the fabrication of precious stones.

Many of these substances, far from contributing to longevity, were actively toxic. Jiajing Emperor in the Ming Dynasty died from ingesting a lethal dosage of mercury in the supposed "Elixir of Life" conjured by alchemists. British historian Joseph Needham compiled a list of Chinese emperors whose deaths were likely due to elixir poisoning [reference?].

14.1.2 India

Amrita, the elixir of life, also known to Sikhs as "Amrit, the Nectar of Immortality" (see Amrit Sanskar), has been described in the Hindu scriptures. Anybody who consumes even a tiniest portion of Amrit has been described to gain immortality. The legend has it, at early times when the inception of the world had just taken place, evil demons had gained strength. This was seen as a threat to the gods who feared them. So these gods (including Indra, the god of sky, Vayu, the god of wind, and Agni, the god of fire) went to seek advice and help from the three primary gods according to the Hindus: Vishnu (the preserver), Brahma (the creator), and Shiva (the destroyer). They suggested

that Amrit could only be gained from the samudra manthan (or churning of the ocean) for the ocean in its depths hid mysterious and secret objects. Vishnu agreed to take the form of a turtle on whose shell a huge mountain was placed. This mountain was used as a churning pole.

With the help of a Vasuki (mighty and long serpent, king of Nagloka) the churning process began at the surface. From one side the gods pulled the serpent, which had coiled itself around the mountain, and the demons pulled it from the other side. As the churning process required immense strength, hence the demons were persuaded to do the job – they agreed in return for a portion of Amrit. Finally with their combined efforts (of the gods and demons), Amrit emerged from the ocean depths. All the gods were offered the drink but the gods managed to trick the demons who did not get the holy drink.

The oldest Indian writings, the Vedas (Hindu sacred scriptures), contain the same hints of alchemy that are found in evidence from ancient China, namely vague references to a connection between gold and long life. Mercury, which was so vital to alchemy everywhere, is first mentioned in the 4th to 3rd century BC Arthashastra, about the same time it is encountered in China and in the West. Evidence of the idea of transmuting base metals to gold appears in 2nd to 5th century AD Buddhist texts, about the same time as in the West.

It is also possible that the alchemy of medicine and immortality came to China from India, or vice versa; in any case, for both cultures, gold-making appears to have been a minor concern, and medicine the major concern. But the elixir of immortality was of little importance in India (which had other avenues to immortality). The Indian elixirs were mineral remedies for specific diseases or, at the most, to promote long life.

14.1.3 Europe

Comte de St. Germain, an 18th-century nobleman of uncertain origin and mysterious capabilities, was also reputed to have the Elixir and to be several hundred years old. Many European recipes specify that *elixir* is to be stored in clocks to amplify the effects of immortality on the user. Frenchman Nicolas Flamel was also a reputed creator of the Elixir.

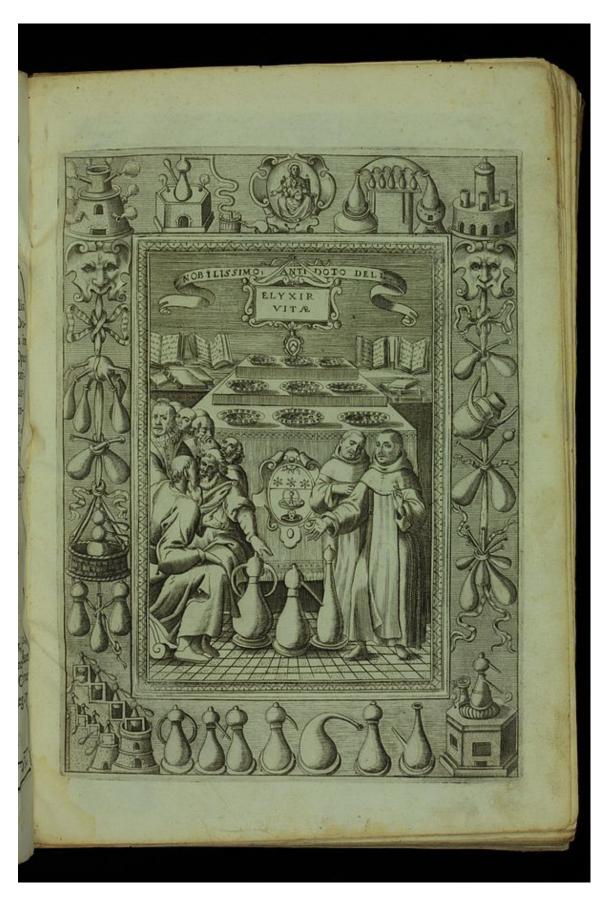
14.2 Names

The Elixir has had hundreds of names (one scholar of Chinese history reportedly found over 1,000 names for it.), including (among others) Amrit Ras or Amrita, Aab-i-Hayat, Maha Ras, Aab-Haiwan, Dancing Water, Chasma-i-Kausar, Mansarover or the Pool of Nectar, Philosopher's stone, and Soma Ras. The word *elixir* was not used until the 7th century A.D. and derives from the Arabic name for miracle substances, "al iksir". Some view it as a metaphor for the spirit of God (*e.g.*, Jesus's reference to "the Water of Life" or "the Fountain of Life"). "But whoever drinks the water I give him will never thirst. Indeed, the water I give him will become in him a spring of water welling up to eternal life." (John 4:14) The Scots and the Irish adopted the name for their "liquid gold": the Gaelic name for whiskey is uisce beatha, or water of life.

Aab-i-Hayat is Persian and means "water of life".*[4] "Chashma-i-Kausar" (not "hasma") is the "Fountain of Bounty," which Muslims believe to be located in Paradise. As for the Indian names, "Amrit Ras" means "immortality juice," "Maha Ras" means "great juice," and "Soma Ras" means "juice of Soma." Soma was a psychoactive drug, by which the poets of the Vedas received their visions, but the plant is no longer known. Later, Soma came to mean the moon. "Ras" later came to mean "sacred mood, which is experienced by listening to good poetry or music"; there are altogether nine of them. Mansarovar, the "mind lake" is the holy lake at the foot of Mt. Kailash in Tibet, close to the source of the Ganges.

14.3 In popular culture

- In L. Frank Baum's fantasy novel *John Dough and the Cherub*, the Elixir of Life is what brings the life-size gingerbread-man to life, and what propels the action, as he is pursued by Ali Dubh, who seeks to eat him, and thereby gain the benefits of the Waters of Life.
- In the science fiction series *Doctor Who* the Elixir of Life is used by the Sisterhood of Karn in several episodes, including the 1976 story The Brain of Morbius, the two part audio drama Sisters of the Flame and Vengeance of Morbius and the 2013 minisode Night of the Doctor.



Dell' elixir vitae, 1624

- In "The Tale of the Guardian's Curse", a third season episode of "Are You Afraid of the Dark?", an elixir of life resurrected a female Egyptian mummy named Mina while a ring of eternity transformed her into a living human being.
- In Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone, the stone produces the Elixir of Life.
- In Marvel Comics the character Nick Fury drank the "Infinity Formula" which is a "diluted form of the Elixir of Immortality" in order to stay young.
- In the popular Japanese bullet hell shooter *Touhou* the two characters Kaguya and Mokou have drank the "Hourai Elixir" which is the elixir of life.
- In the light novel series Baccano! and its anime adaption, the Elixir of Life (also referred to as the "Grand Panacea") is one of the primary drivers of the plot, allowing many of the same characters to appear in the various time periods in which the series takes place.

14.4 See also

- Ageing
- Al Khidr
- Ambrosia
- Cup of Jamshid
- Death Becomes Her
- Elixir
- Fountain of youth
- Genealogies of Genesis
- Holy Grail
- Lazarus Pit
- Magu (deity)
- Panacea
- Rejuvenation (aging)
- Universal panacea
- Aab-e hayat

14.5 Footnotes

- [1] Turner, John D. (transl.). The Interpretation of Knowledge. Retrieved 8 Sept 2014.
- [2] Medieval Science, Technology And Medicine: An Encyclopedia, A Glick, T.F., A Livesey, S.J., Wallis, F., Routledge, p. 20 2005
- [3] http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/582108/Tan-chin-yao-chueh
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Ichor

This article is about the mythological term. For the modern meaning, see Bile.

In Greek mythology, **Ichor** (/'aɪkər/ or /'ɪkər/; Ancient Greek: $i\chi\omega\rho$)*[1] is the ethereal golden fluid that is the blood of the gods and/or immortals.

15.1 In classical myth

Ichor originates in Greek mythology, where it is the ethereal fluid that is the Greek gods' blood, sometimes said to retain the qualities of the immortal's food and drink, ambrosia or nectar.*[2] It was considered to be golden in color, as well as lethally toxic to mortals. Great demigods and heroes occasionally attacked gods and released ichor, but gods rarely did so to each other in Homeric myth.

Iliad V. 364–382*[2]

from death exempt.

Blood follow'd, but immortal; ichor pure,

Such as the blest inhabitants of heav'n

May bleed, nectareous; for the Gods eat not

Man's food, nor slake as he with sable wine

Their thirst, thence bloodless and from death exempt. †

† We are not to understand that the poet ascribes the immortality of the Gods to their abstinence from the drink and food of man, for most animals partake of neither, but the expression is elliptic and requires to be supplied thus —They drink not wine but nectar, eat not the food of mortals, but ambrosia; thence it is that they are bloodless and

—W. Cowper, *The Iliad of Homer*, Schol. per Vill

In Ancient Crete, tradition told of Talos, a giant man of bronze portrayed with wings. When Cretan mythology was appropriated by the Greeks, they imagined him more like the Colossus of Rhodes. He possessed a single vein running with ichor that was stoppered by a nail in his back. Talos guarded Europa on Crete and threw boulders at intruders until the Argonauts came after the acquisition of the Golden Fleece and the sorceress Medea took out the nail, releasing the ichor and killing him.

In pathology, "ichor" is an antiquated term for a watery discharge from a wound or ulcer with an unpleasant or fetid (offensive) smell.*[3] The Greek Christian writer Clement of Alexandria used "ichor" in this sense in a polemic against the pagan Greek gods.

15.2 In fiction

H. P. Lovecraft often used "ichor" in his descriptions of other-worldly creatures, most prominently in his nightmarish detail of the remains of Wilbur Whateley, in *The Dunwich Horror*. Author Ursula K. Le Guin, in *From Elfland to Poughkeepsie*, calls the term "the infallible touchstone of the seventh-rate." *[4]

15.3. SEE ALSO 65

In Rick Riordan's series Percy Jackson & the Olympians, all divine immortal beings have Ichor instead of blood.

In Dungeons & Dragons the blood of demons is referred to as "ichor."

In Cassandra Clare's series The Mortal Instruments, the blood of the demons and angels is referred to as ichor.

In Anne McCaffrey's series *Dragonriders of Pern*, the native fauna of Pern has been referred to as "greenblood" and the dragons themselves have green ichor.

In Jacqueline Carey's Kushiel's Legacy series, the blood of the D'Angelines are said to have brought ichor in their veins

In the MOBA game, *League of Legends*, two types of ichors are available on the Twisted Treeline map as consumable items that give temporary bonuses to a player's stats.

In the video game Warframe the weapon "dual ichor" is a pair of two short blades that do poison damage to foes. Considering all foes are mortal, it fits rather well.

In *The Demon Cycle* book series by Peter V. Brett, the black blood of the various species of demon is referred to as ichor.

Jim Butcher in his Dresden Files series uses the term ichor to describe the thick black blood of "ghouls". *[5]

In the video game Terraria ichor is a loot drop from ichor stickers and is used to make various armor decreasing items.

15.3 See also

- · Blood of Christ
- Ectoplasm (paranormal)
- Petrichor

15.4 References

- [1] Of uncertain etymology; R. S. P. Beekes has suggested that is a foreign word (*Etymological Dictionary of Greek*, Brill, 2009, pp. 607–8).
- [2] Homer, (trans. William Cowper) (1802). Johnson, John, ed. *The Iliad of Homer, Translated into English Blank Verse*. Volume 1. Iliad V. 364–382 (p. 153).
- [3] ichor definition of ichor by the Free Online Dictionary, Thesaurus and Encyclopedia
- [4] Ursula K. Le Guin, From Elfland to Poughkeepsie, p 80 The Language of the Night ISBN 0-425-05205-2
- [5] Butcher, Jim, "Cold Days", Chapters 6 & 23 ISBN 978-0451419125

15.5 External links

• The dictionary definition of ichor at Wiktionary

Manna

For the Polynesian word, see mana. For other uses, see Manna (disambiguation).

Manna (Hebrew: מָן) or al-Mann wa al-Salwa (Arabic: الْمَنَّ و السلوى, Kurdish: gezo, Persian: گزانگبين), sometimes or archaically spelled mana, is an edible substance that, according to the Bible and the Quran,*[1] God provided for the Israelites during their travels in the desert.

16.1 Description

16.1.1 Biblical / canonical description



Manna is described as having the appearance of bdellium

In the Hebrew Bible, manna is described twice: once in Exodus 16:1-36 with the full narrative surrounding it, and once again in Numbers 11:1-9 as a part of a separate narrative. In the description in the Book of Exodus, manna is described as being "a fine, flake-like thing" like the frost on the ground.*[2] It is described in the Book of Numbers as

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Manna is described as white and comparable to hoarfrost in size. Hoarfrost on grass lawn.



According to the book of Exodus, manna is white, like Coriander seed, (although modern-day coriander seed is yellow/brown).

arriving with the dew during the night; [3] Exodus adds that manna was comparable to hoarfrost in size, [2] similarly had to be collected before it was melted by the heat of the sun, [4] and was white like coriander seed in color. [5] Numbers describes it as having the appearance of bdellium, [6] adding that the Israelites ground it and pounded it into cakes, which were then baked, resulting in something that tasted like cakes baked with oil. [7] Exodus states that raw manna tasted like wafers that had been made with honey. [5] The Israelites were instructed to eat only the manna they had gathered for each day. Leftovers of manna stored up for the following day "bred worms and stank": [8] the exception being the day before the Sabbath (Preparation Day), when twice the amount of manna was gathered, which did not spoil overnight; because, Exodus 16:23-24 [states] "This is what the Lord commanded: "Tomorrow is

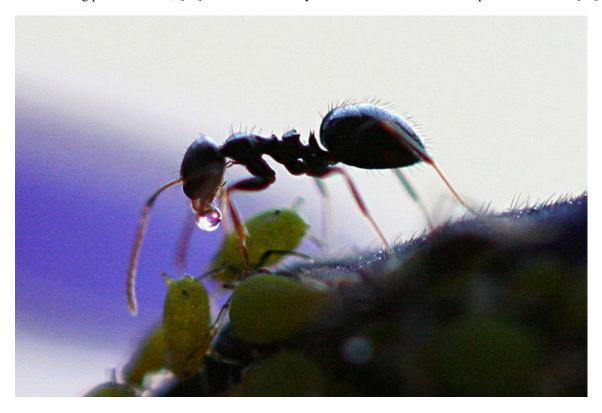
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to be a day of rest, a holy Sabbath to the Lord. So bake what you want to bake and boil what you want to boil. Save whatever is left and keep it until morning.' So they saved it until morning, as Moses said was commanded, and it did not stink or get maggots in it."

The word mana appears three times in the Qur'ān. It is narrated in the hadith Sahih Muslim that the prophet Mohammad said "Truffles are part of the 'manna' which Allah, sent to the people of Israel through Moses, and its juice is a medicine for the eye." *[9]

16.1.2 Identification

Some scholars have proposed that manna is cognate with the Egyptian term *mennu*, meaning "food".*[10] At the turn of the twentieth century, Arabs of the Sinai Peninsula were selling resin from the tamarisk tree as *man es-simma*, roughly meaning "heavenly manna".*[11] Tamarisk trees (particularly *Tamarix gallica*) were once comparatively extensive throughout the southern Sinai, and their resin is similar to wax, melts in the sun, is sweet and aromatic (like honey), and has a dirty-yellow color, fitting somewhat with the Biblical descriptions of manna.*[12]*[13] However, this resin is mostly composed from sugar, so it would be unlikely to provide sufficient nutrition for a population to survive over long periods of time,*[12] and it would be very difficult for it to have been compacted into cakes.*[13]



Black ant with a clear bubble of honeydew produced by a green aphid

In the Biblical account, the name manna is said to derive from the question *man hu*, seemingly meaning "What is it?";*[14] this is perhaps an Aramaic etymology, not a Hebrew one.*[13] *Man* is possibly cognate with the Arabic term *man*, meaning plant lice, with *man hu* thus meaning "this is plant lice", *[13] which fits one widespread modern identification of manna, the crystallized honeydew of certain scale insects.*[13]*[15] In the environment of a desert, such honeydew rapidly dries due to evaporation of its water content, becoming a sticky solid, and later turning whitish, yellowish, or brownish;*[13] honeydew of this form is considered a delicacy in the Middle East, and is a good source of carbohydrates.*[15] In particular, there is a scale insect that feeds on tamarisk, the Tamarisk manna scale (*Trabutina mannipara*), which is often considered to be the prime candidate for biblical manna.*[16]*[17]

Another type is Turkey Oak Manna, also called Persian gezengevi- gezo, men, Turkish Kudret helvasi, man-es-simma, also Diarbekir manna, or Kurdish manna. It is formed by aphids and appears white. It was common in western Iran, northern Iraq and eastern Turkey. When dried it forms into crystalline lumps which are hard and look like stone. They are pounded before inclusion in breads.*[18]

A number of ethnomycologists, including Terence McKenna,*[19] have suggested that most characteristics of manna

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Scale insects covered in waxy secretions

are similar to that of *Psilocybe cubensis* mushrooms, notorious breeding grounds for insects, which decompose rapidly. These peculiar fungi naturally produce a number of molecules that resemble human neurochemicals, and first appear as small fibres (mycelia) that resemble hoarfrost. Psilocybin, the primary psychoactive molecule in the "Psilocybe cubensis" mushroom, has shown to produce spiritual experiences, with "personal meaning and spiritual significance" when test subjects were evaluated 14 months later.*[20] In a psilocybin study from 2006 one-third of the participants reported that the experience was the single most spiritually significant moment of their lives and more than two-thirds reported it was among the top five most spiritually significant experiences. A side-effect from psilocybin consumption is the loss of appetite.*[21] The speculation that manna was an entheogen, also paralleled in Philip K. Dick's posthumously published *The Transmigration of Timothy Archer*, is supported in a wider cultural context when compared with the praise of soma in the Rigveda, Mexican praise of teonanácatl, the peyote sacrament of the Native American Church, and the holy ayahuasca used in the ritual of the União do Vegetal and Santo Daime churches.*[22]

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Psilocybe cubensis

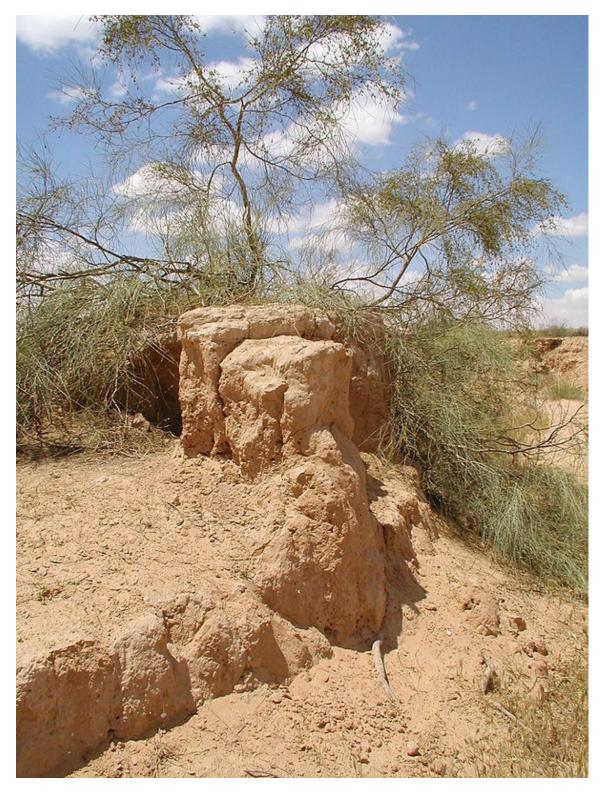
Other minority identifications of manna are that it was a kosher species of locust, *[23] or that it was the sap of certain succulent plants (such as those of the genus *Alhagi*, which have an appetite-suppressing effect). *[24]

16.1.3 Potential discrepancies

Some form critics posit conflicting descriptions of manna as derived from different lore, with the description in Numbers being from the Jahwist tradition, and the description in Exodus being from the later Priestly tradition.*[25]*[26] The Babylonian Talmud states that the differences in description were due to the taste varying depending on who ate it, with it tasting like honey for small children, like bread for youths, and like oil for the elderly.*[27] Similarly, classical rabbinical literature rectifies the question of whether manna came before or after dew, by holding that the manna was sandwiched between two layers of dew, one falling before the manna, and the other after.*[11]

16.2 Origin

Manna is from Heaven, according to the Bible,*[28] but the various identifications of manna are naturalistic. In the Mishnah, manna is treated as a natural but unique substance, "created during the twilight of the sixth day of Creation",*[29] and ensured to be clean, before it arrives, by the sweeping of the ground by a northern wind and subsequent rains.*[30] According to classical rabbinical literature, manna was ground in a heavenly mill for the use of the righteous, but some of it was allocated to the wicked and left for them to grind themselves.*[11]



A tamarisk tree in the Levant desert

16.3 Use and function

Until they reached Canaan, the Israelites are implied by some passages in the Bible to have eaten only manna during their desert sojourn, *[31] despite the availability of milk and meat from the livestock with which they traveled, and the references to provisions of fine flour, oil, and meat, in parts of the journey's narrative. *[11]

As a natural food substance, manna would produce waste products; but in classical rabbinical literature, as a super-

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natural substance, it was held that manna produced no waste, resulting in no defecation among the Israelites until several decades later, when the manna had ceased to fall.*[32] Modern medical science suggests the lack of defecation over such a long period of time would cause severe bowel problems, especially when other food later began to be consumed again. Classical rabbinical writers say that the Israelites complained about the lack of defecation, and were concerned about potential bowel problems.*[32]

Many Christian vegetarians say that God had originally intended man would not eat meat because plants cannot move and killing them would not be sinful: manna, a nonmeat substance, is used to support this theory.*[33] Further, when the people complained and wished for quail, God gave it to them, but they apparently still complained and some greedily gathered the quail. "While the meat was still between their teeth, before it was chewed, the anger of the Lord was kindled against the people." *[34]

Food was not manna's only use; one classical rabbinical source states that the fragrant odor of manna was used in an Israelite perfume.*[11]

Today, a product marketed as "manna" is extracted from the sap of Manna Ash Fraxinus ornus in Sicily (in Madonie Park area, located in Northen Sicily) by Sicilian farmers, and most of it goes abroad. Manna is used in many products (sweets, cakes, but also parfumes) and for this reason it costs about 80 euros each kilo. Doctors often recommend manna instead traditional sugar (or chemical substitutes), especially to patients who have diabetes problems) because it contains lower levels of glucose and natural substances.

16.4 Gathering

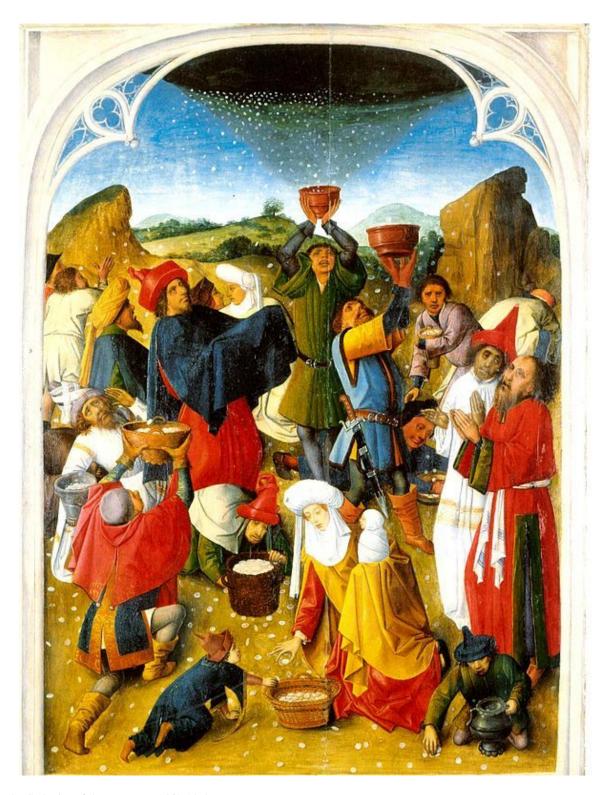
Exodus says each day one omer of manna was gathered per family member (about 3.64 litres),*[35] and may imply this was regardless of how much effort was put into gathering it;*[36] a midrash attributed to Rabbi Tanhuma remarks that although some were diligent enough to go into the fields to gather manna, others just lay down lazily and caught it with their outstretched hands.*[37] The Talmud states that this factor was used to solve disputes about the ownership of slaves, since the number of omers of manna each household could gather would indicate how many people were legitimately part of the household;*[38] the omers of manna for stolen slaves could only be gathered by legitimate owners, and therefore legitimate owners would have spare omers of manna.*[38]

According to the Talmud, manna was found near the homes of those with strong belief in God, and far from the homes of those with doubts;*[38] indeed, one classical midrash says that manna was intangible to Gentiles, as it would inevitably slip from their hands.*[39] The Midrash Tanhuma holds that manna melted, formed liquid streams, was drunk by animals, flavored the animal flesh, and was thus indirectly eaten by Gentiles, this being the only manner that Gentiles could taste manna.*[40] Despite these hints of uneven distribution, classical rabbinical literature expresses the view that manna fell in very large quantities each day. It holds that manna was layered out over 2,000 cubits square, between 50 and 60 cubits in height, enough to nourish the Israelites for 2,000 years*[11] and to be seen from the palaces of every king in the East and West,*[41] probably a metaphorical statement.

16.4.1 Sabbath

According to RIKI, Shabbat (Sabbath) was instituted the first week the manna appeared. [42] It states that twice as much manna as usual was available on the sixth mornings of the week, and none at all could be found on the seventh days; [43] although manna usually rotted and became maggot-infested after a single night, [8] manna which had been collected on the sixth day remained fresh until the second night. [44] Moses stated that the double portion of Preparation Day was to be consumed on Shabbat; [42] and that God instructed him no one should leave his place on Shabbat, [45] so that the people could rest during it. [46]

Form critics regard this part of the manna narrative to be spliced together from the Yahwist and Priestly traditions, with the Yahwist tradition emphasizing rest during Shabbat, while the Priestly tradition merely states that Shabbat exists, implying that the meaning of "Shabbat" was already known.*[13]*[47] These critics regard this part of the manna narrative as an etiological supernature story designed to explain the origin of Shabbat observance, which in reality was probably pre-Mosaic.*[13]



The Gathering of the Manna, c. 1460-1470.

16.5 Duration of supply

Exodus states that the Israelites consumed the manna for 40 years, starting from the fifteenth day of the second month (Iyar 15),*[48] but that it then ceased to appear once they had reached a settled land, and once they had reached the borders of Canaan (inhabited by the Canaanites).*[49] Form critics attribute this variation to the view that each expression of the manna ceasing derives from different lore; the "settled land" is attributed to the Priestly tradition,*[13]*[47] and "Canaan's borders" to the Yahwist tradition, or to a hypothetical later redaction to synchronize

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the account with that of the Book of Joshua,*[13]*[47] which states that the manna ceased to appear on the day after the annual Passover festival (Nisan 14), when the Israelites had reached Gilgal.*[50] The duration from Iyar 15 to Nisan 14, taken literally, is 40 years less one month.

There is also a disagreement among classical rabbinical writers as to when the manna ceased, particularly in regard to whether it remained after the death of Moses for a further 40 days, 70 days, or 14 years;*[51] indeed, according to Joshua ben Levi, the manna ceased to appear at the moment that Moses died.*[11]

Despite the eventual termination of the supply of manna, Exodus states that a small amount of it survived within an omer-sized pot or jar, which was kept facing the Testimony (possibly, adjacent to the Ark of the Covenant);*[52] it indicates that Yahweh instructed this of Moses, who delegated it to Aaron.*[53] The Epistle to the Hebrews states that the pot was stored inside the Ark.*[54] Classical rabbinical sources believe the pot was of gold; some say it was only there for the generation following Moses, and others that it survived at least until the time of Jeremiah.*[11] However, the First Book of Kings states that it was absent earlier than Jeremiah, during Solomon's reign in the tenth century B.C.*[55] Form critics attribute the mention of the pot to the Priestly tradition, concluding that the pot existed in the early sixth century B.C.*[47]

16.6 Later cultural references

By extension "manna" has been used to refer to any divine or spiritual nourishment. This should however, not be confused with the word mana, which is of Austronesian etymology.

For many years, Roman Catholics have annually collected a clear liquid from the tomb of Saint Nicholas; [56] legend attributes the pleasant perfume of this liquid as warding off evil, and it is sold to pilgrims as "the Manna of Saint Nicholas". [57] The liquid gradually seeps out of the tomb, but it is unclear whether it originates from the body within the tomb, or from the marble itself; since the town of Bari is a harbor, and the tomb is below sea level, there are several natural explanations for the manna fluid, including the transfer of seawater to the tomb by capillary action. [58]

In the seventeenth century, a woman marketed a clear, tasteless product as a cosmetic, "the Manna of Saint Nicholas of Bari". After the deaths of some 600 men, Italian authorities discovered that the alleged cosmetic was a preparation of arsenic, used by their wives.*[59]

In a modern botanical context, manna is often used to refer to the secretions of various plants, especially of certain shrubs and trees, and in particular the sugars obtained by evaporating the sap of the Manna Ash, extracted by making small cuts in the bark.*[60] The Manna Ash, native to southern Europe and southwest Asia, produces a blue-green sap, which has medicinal value as a mild laxative,*[61] demulcent, and weak expectorant.*[59]

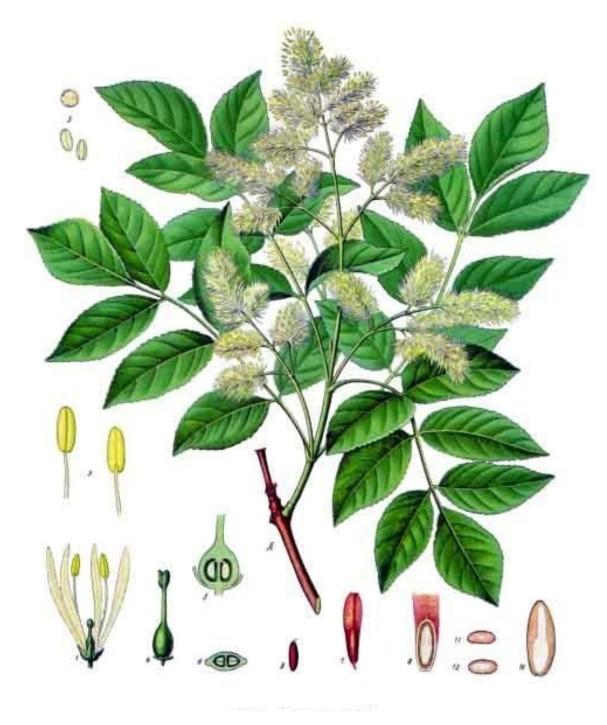
The names of both the sugar mannose and its hydrogenated sugar alcohol, mannitol are derived from manna.*[62] Robert Nozick famously references "manna from heaven" in a thought experiment about distributive justice.*[63]

16.7 Further reading

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16.8 See also

- Psilocybe cubensis and Psilocybe, "flesh of the Gods" / teonanacatl
- Golden Calf



Manna Ash

- Ambrosia
- Soma and Haoma, sacraments of the Rigveda and Zoroastrian canons, respectively

16.9 Notes and references

- [1] "Quran 2:57".
- [2] Exodus 16:14
- [3] Numbers 11:9

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- [4] Exodus 16:21
- [5] Exodus 16:31
- [6] Numbers 11:7
- [7] Numbers 11:8
- [8] Exodus 16:20
- [9] 23:5084
- [10] George Ebers, Durch Gosen zum Sinai, p. 236
- [11] Jewish Encyclopedia
- [12] Cheyne and Black, Encyclopedia Biblica
- [13] Peake's commentary on the Bible
- [14] Exodus 16:15
- [15] Manna Sinai
- [16] http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/581818/tamarisk-manna-scale
- [17] http://www.carpescriptura.com/?tag=trabutina-mannipara
- [18] "Sherbet&Spice: The complete story of Turkish sweets & deserts" by Mary Isin, publisher I.B. Tauris, ISBN 9781848858985
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- [26] Jewish Encyclopedia, "Book of Exodus", "Book of Numbers"
- [27] Yoma 75b
- [28] Psalm 78:24-25, 105:40, John 6:31
- [29] Pirkei Avot 5:9
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- [31] Numbers 21:5
- [32] Sifre (on Numbers) 87-89
- [33] Soler, Jean, The Semiotics of Food in the Bible
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- [35] Exodus 16:16
- [36] Exodus 16:17-18
- [37] Tanhuma, Beshalah 22
- [38] Yoma 75a
- [39] Midrash Abkir (on Exodus) 258
- [40] Midrash Tanhuma

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- [41] Yoma 76a
- [42] Exodus 16:23
- [43] Exodus 16:5, 16:22, 16:26-27
- [44] Exodus 16:24
- [45] Exodus 16:27-29
- [46] Exodus 16:30
- [47] Jewish Encyclopedia, "Book of Exodus"
- [48] Exodus 16:1-4
- [49] Exodus 16:35
- [50] Joshua 5:10-12
- [51] Jewish Encyclopedia, "Manna"
- [52] Exodus 16:34
- [53] Exodus 16:32-33
- [54] Hebrews 9:4
- [55] 1 Kings 8:9
- [56] Devotion and Use of the Manna of Saint Nicholas, St. Nicholas Center
- [57] Carroll, Rory, 2000-12-22, Bones of contention, The Guardian
- [58] Girling, Richard, 2004-12-12, Talking Point: Now do you believe in Santa Claus?, The Times
- [59] Manna, Time magazine, 1927-08-29
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- [61] Grieve, Mrs. M., Ash, Manna
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16.10 External links

- Jewish Encyclopedia, Manna
- chabad.org, The Manna
- Catholic Encyclopedia, Manna
- Devotion and Use of the Manna of Saint Nicholas
- Lycaeum, Manna as a mushroom [psilocybe]

Chapter 17

Orichalcum

Orichalcum or **aurichalcum** is a metal mentioned in several ancient writings, including a story of Atlantis in the *Critias* dialogue, recorded by Plato. According to Critias (460 – 403 BC), orichalcum was considered second only to gold in value, and was found and mined in many parts of Atlantis in ancient times. By the time of Critias, however, orichalcum was known only by name.

Orichalcum may have been one type of bronze or brass, or possibly some other metal alloy. In 2015, metal ingots were found in an ancient shipwreck in Gela (Sicily), which were made of an alloy primarily consisting of copper and zinc, i.e. a form of brass.*[1]

In numismatics, orichalcum is the golden-colored bronze alloy used for the sestertius and dupondius coins. In many fictional pop culture contexts, such as novels and video games, orichalcum is the name given to a valuable ore that can be mined and crafted into powerful armor and weapons.

17.1 Overview

The name derives from the Greek ὀρείχαλκος, *oreikhalkos* (from ὄρος, *oros*, mountain and χαλκός, *chalkos*, copper or bronze), meaning literally "mountain copper" or "copper mountain".

The Romans transliterated "orichalcum" as "aurichalcum," which was thought to literally mean "gold copper". It is known from the writings of Cicero that the metal they called orichalcum, while it resembled gold in colour, had a much lower value.*[2]

Orichalcum has variously been held to be a gold/copper alloy, a copper-tin or copper-zinc brass, or a metal no longer known. However, in Vergil's *Aeneid* it was mentioned that the breastplate of Turnus was "stiff with gold and white orachalc".

In later years, "orichalcum" was used to describe the sulfide mineral chalcopyrite, and to describe brass. However, these usages are difficult to reconcile with the text of Critias, *[3] because he states that the metal was "only a name" by his time, while brass and chalcopyrite continued to be very important through the time of Plato until today.

Joseph Needham notes that the 18th century Bishop Richard Watson, a professor of chemistry, wrote that there was an ancient idea that there were "two sorts of brass or orichalcum". Needham also suggests that the Greeks may not have known how orichalcum was made, and that they might even have had an imitation of the original.*[4]

In 2015, a number of ingots believed to be orichalcum were discovered in a sunken vessel (in the coasts of Gela in Sicily), which has tentatively been dated as being 2600 years old. Analyzed with X-ray fluorescence by Dario Panetta, of TQ - Tecnologies for Quality, the 39 ingots turned out to be an alloy consisting of 75-80 percent copper, 15-20 percent zinc, and smaller percentages of nickel, lead and iron. *[5]*[6]

17.2 Ancient literature

Orichalcum is first mentioned in the 7th century BC by Hesiod, and in the Homeric hymn dedicated to Aphrodite, dated to the 630s.

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According to the *Critias* by Plato, the three outer walls of the Temple to Poseidon and Cleito on Atlantis were clad respectively with brass, tin, and the third outer wall, which encompassed the whole citadel, "flashed with the red light of orichalcum". The interior walls, pillars and floors of the temple were completely covered in orichalcum, and the roof was variegated with gold, silver, and orichalcum. In the center of the temple stood a pillar of orichalcum, on which the laws of Poseidon and records of the first son princes of Poseidon were inscribed. (Crit. 116–119)

Orichalcum is also mentioned in the *Antiquities of the Jews - Book VIII, sect.* 88 by Josephus, who stated that the vessels in the Temple of Solomon were made of orichalcum (or a bronze that was like gold in beauty). Pliny the Elder points out that the metal had lost currency due to the mines being exhausted. Pseudo-Aristotle in *De mirabilibus auscultationibus* describes orichalcum as a shining metal obtained during the smelting of copper with the addition of "calmia" (zinc oxide), a kind of earth formerly found on the shores of the Black Sea.*[7]

17.3 Numismatics





A sestertius coin from the time of Caligula

In numismatics, the term "orichalcum" is used to refer to the golden-colored bronze alloy used for the sestertius and dupondius coins. It is considered more valuable than copper, of which the "as" coin was made.

Some scientists believe that orichalcum may also have been used for jewelry for poorer people, as it had a similar appearance to gold.

17.4 In popular culture

Orichalcum is often mentioned in a number of high fantasy works and video games of fantasy theme, as one of the more valuable ores, along with fictional mithril. Notable examples include Exalted, Dungeons & Dragons, Shadowrun, Earthdawn, Star Ocean, Golden Sun, The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim, Guild Wars 2, Terraria, and Bravely Default.

Orichalcum is a power source in the adventure game *Indiana Jones and the Fate of Atlantis*. It is mentioned several times in various entries in the Final Fantasy videogame franchise as well as in Kingdom Hearts II, where it was used as the primary ore in forging the Ultima Weapon. In Kid Icarus: Uprising, Lord Dyntos tells Pit that his vehicle, the Great Sacred Treasure, is made of orichalcum.

17.5 See also

- Auricupride
- Panchaloha

- Corinthian bronze
- Hepatizon
- Electrum
- Tumbaga
- Shakudō
- Shibuichi
- Thokcha

17.6 References

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17.7 External links

• Media related to Orichalcum coins at Wikimedia Commons

http://news.discovery.com/history/archaeology/atlantis-legendary-metal-found-in-shipwreck-150106.htm

Chapter 18

Panacea (medicine)

The **panacea**/pænə'si:ə/, named after the Greek goddess of universal remedy, Panacea, also known as **panchrest**, was supposed to be a remedy that would cure all diseases and prolong life indefinitely. It was sought by the alchemists as a connection to the elixir of life and the philosopher's stone, a mythical substance which would enable the transmutation of common metals into gold.

The Cahuilla Indian people of the Colorado Desert region of California, according to legend, used the red sap of the elephant tree (or Bursera microphylla) as a panacea medicine.

A panacea (or panaceum) is also a literary term to represent any solution to solve all problems related to a particular issue.

The Latin genus name of ginseng is Panax, (or "panacea") reflecting Linnean understanding that ginseng was widely used in Traditional Chinese Medicine as a cure-all.

18.1 Historical examples

The Universal Antidote is a mixture that contains activated charcoal, magnesium oxide, and tannic acid. All three components neutralize the actions of many poisons. It is prepared by mixing "of two parts activated charcoal, one part tannic acid, and one part magnesium oxide intended to be administered to patients who consumed poison. The mixture is ineffective and no longer used; activated charcoal is useful." *[1] It is now believed that activated charcoal and water is just as effective.*[2]

Tar water was also suspected to be a panacea due to its seemingly universal effects.*[3]

18.2 See also

- List of topics characterized as pseudoscience
- Miasma

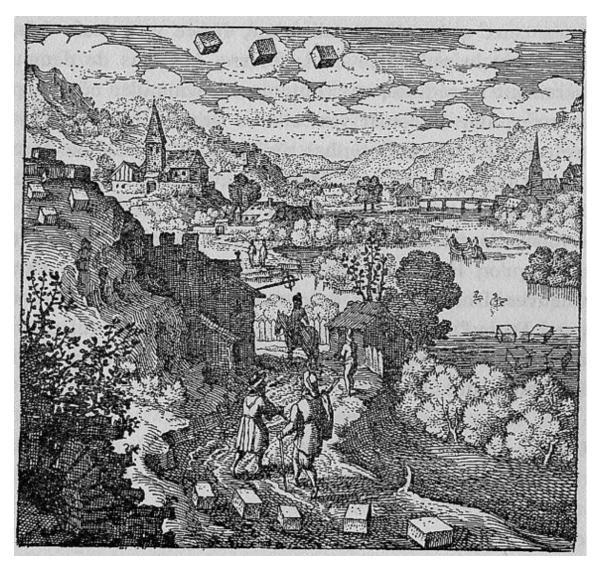
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18.4 External links

Chapter 19

Prima materia



Alchemical emblem depicting the omnipresence of the philosophical matter. "The Stone that is Mercury, is cast upon the Earth, exalted on Mountains, resides in the Air, and is nourished in the Waters." *[1] (Michael Maier's Atalanta Fugiens. 1617.) The cubes represent prima materia.

This article is about a concept in alchemy. For other uses, see Materia (disambiguation).

Prima materia, materia prima or first matter, is the ubiquitous starting material required for the alchemical

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magnum opus and the creation of the philosopher's stone. It is the primitive formless base of all matter similar to chaos, the quintessence, or aether. Esoteric alchemists describe the prima materia using simile, and compare it to concepts like the anima mundi.

19.1 History

The concept of prima materia is sometimes attributed to Aristotle.*[2] The earliest roots of the idea can be found in the philosophy of Anaxagoras, who described the nous in relation to chaos. Empedocles' cosmogony is also relevant.*[3]

When alchemy developed in Greco-Roman Egypt on the foundations of Greek philosophy, it included the concept of prima materia as a central tenet. Mary Anne Atwood uses words attributed to Arnaldus de Villa Nova to describe the role of prima materia in the fundamental theory of alchemy: *That there abides in nature a certain pure matter, which, being discovered and brought by art to perfection, converts to itself proportionally all imperfect bodies that it touches.**[4] Although descriptions of the prima materia have changed throughout history, the concept has remained central to alchemical thought.

19.2 Properties

Alchemical authors used similes to describe the universal nature of the prima materia. Arthur Edward Waite states that all alchemical writers concealed its "true name". Since the prima materia has all the qualities and properties of elementary things, the names of all kinds of things were assigned to it.*[5] A similar account can be found in the *Theatrum Chemicum*:

They have compared the "prima materia" to everything, to male and female, to the hermaphroditic monster, to heaven and earth, to body and spirit, chaos, microcosm, and the confused mass; it contains in itself all colors and potentially all metals; there is nothing more wonderful in the world, for it begets itself, conceives itself, and gives birth to itself.*[6]

Comparisons have been made to Hyle, the primal fire, Proteus, Light, and Mercury.*[7] Martin Ruland the Younger lists more than fifty synonyms for the prima materia in his 1612 alchemical dictionary. His text includes justifications for the names and comparisons. He repeats that, the philosophers have so greatly admired the Creature of God which is called the Primal Matter, especially concerning its efficacy and mystery, that they have given to it many names, and almost every possible description, for they have not known how to sufficiently praise it.*[8] Waite lists an additional eighty four names.

Names assigned to the Prima Materia in Ruland's 1612 alchemical dictionary, *Lexicon alchemiae sive dictionarium alchemistarum.**[9]

- Microcosmos
- The Philosophical Stone
- The Eagle Stone
- · Water of Life
- Venom
- Poison
- Chamber
- Spirit
- Medicine
- Heaven
- Clouds
- Nebula or Fog
- Dew
- Shade

- Moon
- Stella Signata and Lucifer
- Permanent Water
- Fiery and Burning Water
- Salt of Nitre and Saltpetre
- Lye
- Bride, Spouse, Mother, Eve
- Pure and Uncontaminated Virgin
- Milk of Virgin, or the Fig
- Boiling Milk
- Honey
- A Spiritual Blood
- Bath
- A Syrup
- Vinegar
- Lead
- Tin
- Sulphur of Nature
- Spittle of the Moon
- Ore
- The Serpent
- The Dragon
- Marble, Crystal, Glass
- Scottish Gem
- Urine
- Magnesia
- Magnet
- White Ethesia
- White Moisture
- White Smoke
- Dung
- Metallic Entity
- Mercury
- The Soul and Heaven of the Elements
- The Matter of all Forms
- Tartar of the Philosophers
- Dissolved Refuse
- The Rainbow
- Indian Gold
- Heart of the Sun
- Chaos
- Venus

19.3. SEE ALSO 85

19.3 See also

- Arche
- Individuation
- Theory of Forms
- Yliaster

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- [6] Paul Kugler. The Alchemy of Discourse: Image, Sound and Psyche. Daimon, 2002. p.112
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Chapter 20

Yliaster

Yliaster is the term coined by Paracelsus which refers to "Prime matter, consisting of body and soul". It is most likely a portmanteau of the Greek *hyle* (matter) and Latin *astrum* (star). To Paracelsus, the Iliaster represented the two basic compounds of the cosmos, matter representing "below", and the stars representing "above". Paracelsus says this of the Iliaster while describing how fossils are trapped in wood:

Accordingly, the first body, the Yliaster, was nothing but a clod which contained all the chaos, all the waters, all minerals, all herbs, all stones, all gems. Only the supreme Master could release them and form them with tender solicitude, so that other things could be created from the rest.*[1]

In this sense, the Iliaster is the same as the Prima Materia. It is the formless base of all matter which is the raw material for the alchemical Great Work.

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[1] Fernando, Diana ALCHEMY: An Illustsrated A to Z, Blandford, 1998, pp. 181

Chapter 21

Lernaean Hydra

In Greek mythology, the **Lernaean Hydra** (Greek: $\Lambda\epsilon\rho\nu\alpha\tilde{\imath}$ " $\Upsilon\delta\rho\alpha$) was an ancient serpent-like water monster with reptilian traits. It possessed many heads – the poets mention more heads than the vase-painters could paint – and for each head cut off it grew two more 'Cut off one head, Two more shall take it's place'. It had poisonous breath and blood so virulent that even its tracks were deadly.*[1] The Hydra of Lerna was killed by Heracles as the second of his Twelve Labours. Its lair was the lake of Lerna in the Argolid, though archaeology has borne out the myth that the sacred site was older even than the Mycenaean city of Argos since Lerna was the site of the myth of the Danaids. Beneath the waters was an entrance to the Underworld, and the Hydra was its guardian.*[2]

The Hydra was one of the offspring of Typhon and Echidna (*Theogony*, 313), both of whom were noisome offspring of the earth goddess Gaia.*[3]

21.1 The Second Labour of Heracles

Eurystheus sent Heracles to slay the Hydra, which Hera had raised just to slay Heracles. Upon reaching the swamp near Lake Lerna, where the Hydra dwelt, Heracles covered his mouth and nose with a cloth to protect himself from the poisonous fumes. He fired flaming arrows into the Hydra's lair, the spring of Amymone, a deep cave that it only came out of to terrorize neighboring villages.*[4] He then confronted the Hydra, wielding a harvesting sickle (according to some early vase-paintings), a sword or his famed club. Ruck and Staples (1994: 170) have pointed out that the chthonic creature's reaction was botanical: upon cutting off each of its heads he found that two grew back, an expression of the hopelessness of such a struggle for any but the hero. The weakness of the Hydra was that it was invulnerable only if it retained at least one head.

The details of the struggle are explicit in the *Bibliotheca* (2.5.2): realizing that he could not defeat the Hydra in this way, Heracles called on his nephew Iolaus for help. His nephew then came upon the idea (possibly inspired by Athena) of using a firebrand to scorch the neck stumps after each decapitation. Heracles cut off each head and Iolaus cauterized the open stumps. Seeing that Heracles was winning the struggle, Hera sent a large crab to distract him. He crushed it under his mighty foot. The Hydra's one immortal head was cut off with a golden sword given to him by Athena. Heracles placed the head – still alive and writhing – under a great rock on the sacred way between Lerna and Elaius (Kerenyi 1959:144), and dipped his arrows in the Hydra's poisonous blood, and so his second task was complete.

The alternative version of this myth is that after cutting off one head he then dipped his sword in it and used its venom to burn each head so it couldn't grow back. Hera, upset that Heracles had slain the beast she raised to kill him, placed it in the dark blue vault of the sky as the constellation Hydra. She then turned the crab into the constellation Cancer.

Heracles would later use arrows dipped in the Hydra's poisonous blood to kill other foes during his remaining Labours, such as Stymphalian Birds and the giant Geryon. He later used one to kill the centaur Nessus; and Nessus' tainted blood was applied to the Tunic of Nessus, by which the centaur had his posthumous revenge. Both Strabo and Pausanias report that the stench of the river Anigrus in Elis, making all the fish of the river inedible, was reputed to be due to the Hydra's poison, washed from the arrows Heracles used on the centaur.*[5]

When Eurystheus, the agent of ancient Hera who was assigning The Twelve Labors to Heracles, found out that it was Heracles' nephew Iolaus who had handed him the firebrand, he declared that the labor had not been completed alone and as a result did not count towards the 10 Labours set for him. The mythic element is an equivocating attempt to



Hercules and the Hydra (c. 1475) by Antonio Pollaiuolo (Galleria degli Uffizi).

resolve the submerged conflict between an ancient ten Labours and a more recent twelve.

21.2 Heracles and the hydra in art

- Caeretan black-figure hydria (c. 346 BC)
- Mosaic from Roman Spain (26 AD)
- Silver sculpture (1530s)
- Engraving (1) by Hans Sebald Beham
- Gustave Moreau (1861)
- John Singer Sargent (1921)

21.3 Constellation

Mythographers relate that the Lernaean Hydra and the crab were put into the sky after Heracles slew them. In an alternative version, Hera's crab was at the site to bite his feet and bother him, hoping to cause his death. Hera set it in the Zodiac to follow the Lion (Eratosthenes, *Catasterismi*). When the sun is in the sign of Cancer, the crab, the constellation Hydra has its head nearby.

21.4 In popular culture

Main article: Greek mythology in popular culture

- The Beast mentioned in the Book of Revelation has all the features of a Hydra, and it is generally understood as an allegory of the Roman Empire, especially during the years of Nero and the Great Fire of Rome.
- Jason and the Argonauts featured a battle between Jason and a Hydra.
- The Disney animated film *Hercules* features the Hydra, which Hercules fights and defeats by causing an avalanche that crushes it.
- Hydra was a 2009 low-budget monster movie.
- Hydra is a global terrorist organization in the Marvel universe.
- Two Hydras appear in the 2011 video game *Dark Souls* as optional enemies. Although they both dwell in a different body of water each, one can fly under its own, possibly magical, power for a brief period of time. They are killed by dealing sufficient damage, or by removing enough of their heads.
- Hydras can be found in the video game *Dragon's Dogma* as enemies. Their heads regrow when severed unless sealed with fire.

21.5 Notes

- [1] "This monster was so poisonous that she killed men with her breath and excretion. If anyone passed by when she was sleeping, he breathed her tracks and died in the greatest torment." (Hyginus, 30).
- [2] Kerenyi (1959), 143.
- [3] For other chthonic monsters said in various sources to be ancient offspring of Hera, the Nemean Lion, the Stymphalian birds, the Chimaera, and Cerberus.
- [4] Kerenyi, The Heroes of the Greeks, 1959:144.
- [5] Strabo, viii.3.19, Pausanias, v.5.9; Grimal 1987:219.



Henry IV as Hercules vanquishing the Lernaean Hydra (i.e., the Catholic League), workshop of Toussaint Dubreuil, ca.1600

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21.7 External links

- Statue of Heracles battling the Lernaean Hydra at the southern entrance to the Hofburg (Imperial Palace) in Vienna
- Statue of the Hydra battling Hercules at the Louvre

21.8 Text and image sources, contributors, and licenses

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Cup of Jamshid



Hafez looking at the Cup of Jamshid, Bibliothèque nationale de France, Turkish manuscript of 1477, author unknown, from Shîrâz, Iran

Jamshid [y̆emšīd] (Persian: جمشید, Jamshīd) (Middle-and New Persian: جرّ, Jam) (Avestan: Yima) is a mythological figure of Greater Iranian culture and tradition. The **Cup of Jamshid** (Cup of Djemscheed or Jaam-e Jam, in Persian: جرّ العربي is a cup of divination, which in Persian mythology was long possessed by the rulers of ancient Greater Iran. The cup has also been called Jame Jahan nama, Jame Jahan Ara, Jame Giti nama, and Jame Kei-khosrow. The latter refers to **Kaei Husravah** in the Avesta, and Sushravas in the Vedas.

The cup has been the subject of many Persian poems and stories. Many authors ascribed the success of the Persian Empire to the possession of this artefact. It appears extensively in Persian literature.

The cup ("Jām") was said to be filled with an elixir of immortality and was used in scrying. As mentioned by Ali-Akbar Dehkhoda, it was believed that all seven heavens of the universe could be observed by looking into it (از مفت فال ک در او مشاهده و معالی). It was believed to have been discovered in Persepolis in ancient times. The whole world was said to be reflected in it, and

divinations within the cup were said to reveal deep truths. Sometimes, especially in popular depictions such as The Heroic Legend of Arslan, the cup has been visualized as a crystal ball. Helen Zimmern's English translation of the Shahnameh uses the term "crystal globe".^[1]

1 See also

- Alchemy and chemistry in medieval Islam
- Cornucopia (mythical vessels with magical powers)
- Chalice of Doña Urraca
- Drinking horn
- Holy Chalice
- Holy Grail
- Holyrood (cross)
- Holy Prepuce
- Holy Sponge
- Mythological objects (list)
- Nail (relic)
- Nanteos Cup
- Relic
- Relics attributed to Jesus
- Sampo
- Sandals of Jesus Christ
- Shroud of Turin
- Titulus Crucis
- Tree of Jesse
- True cross

2 References

[1] Shahnameh (The Epic of Kings): Bijan and Manijeh

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3.1 Text

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Eldhrímnir

In Norse mythology, **Eldhrímnir** (Old Norse "firesooty"^[1]) is the cauldron in which the cook of the gods, Andhrímnir, prepares Sæhrímnir every evening.

1 Notes

[1] Orchard (1997:37).

2 References

• Orchard, Andy (1997). *Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend*. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2

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Gleipnir

In Norse mythology, **Gleipnir** (Old Norse "open one" [1]) is the binding that holds the mighty wolf Fenrir (as attested in chapter 34 of the *Prose Edda* book *Gylfaginning*). The Gods had attempted to bind Fenrir twice before with huge chains of metal, but Fenrir was able to break free both times. Therefore, they commissioned the dwarves to forge a chain that was impossible to break. To create a chain to achieve the impossible, the dwarves fashioned the chain out of six supposedly impossible things:

- The sound of a cat's footfall
- The beard of a woman
- The roots of a mountain
- The sinews of a bear
- The breath of a fish
- The spittle of a bird

Therefore, even though Gleipnir is as thin as a silken ribbon, it is stronger than any iron chain. It was forged by the dwarves in their underground realm of Niðavellir.

Gleipnir, having bound Fenrir securely, was the cause of Týr's lost hand, for Fenrir bit it off in revenge when he was not freed. Gleipnir is said to hold until Ragnarök, when Fenrir will finally break free and devour Odin.

1 Notes

[1] Orchard (1997:58).

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• Orchard, Andy (1997). *Dictionary of Norse Myth and Legend*. Cassell. ISBN 0-304-34520-2

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Hand of Glory

The **Hand of Glory** is the dried and pickled hand of a man who has been hanged, often specified as being the left (Latin: *sinister*) hand, or, if the man were hanged for murder, the hand that "did the deed."

According to old European beliefs, a candle made of the fat from a malefactor who died on the gallows, lighted, and placed (as if in a candlestick) in the Hand of Glory, which comes from the same man as the fat in the candle; this would have rendered motionless all persons to whom it was presented. The candle could only be put out with milk. In another version, the hair of the dead man is used as a wick, and the candle would give light only to the holder. The Hand of Glory also purportedly had the power to unlock any door it came across. [1] The method of making a Hand of Glory is described in *Petit Albert*, [2][3] and in the *Compendium Maleficarum*. [4]

Etymologist Walter Skeat reports^[5] that, while folklore has long attributed mystical powers to a dead man's hand, the specific phrase "Hand of Glory" is in fact a folk etymology: it derives from the French *main de gloire*, a corruption of *mandragore*, which is to say mandrake. Skeat writes, "The identification of the *hand of glory* with the *mandrake* is clinched by the statement in Cockayne's Leechdoms, i. 245,^[6] that the mandrake "shineth by night altogether like a lamp" (Cockayne in turn is quoting *Pseudo-Apuleius*, in a translation of a Saxon manuscript of his *Herbarium*)^[5]

Whitby Museum in North Yorkshire, England possesses a Hand of Glory. [7]

1 Process

The 1722 Petit Albert describes in detail how to make a Hand of Glory, as cited from him by Grillot De Givry:

Take the right or left hand of a felon who is hanging from a gibbet beside a highway; wrap it in part of a funeral pall and so wrapped squeeze it well. Then put it into an earthenware vessel with zimat, nitre, salt and long peppers, the whole well powdered. Leave it in this vessel for a fortnight, then take it out and expose it to full sunlight during the dog-days until it becomes quite dry. If the sun is not strong enough put it in an oven with fern and vervain. Next make a kind of candle from the fat of a gibbeted felon, virgin wax, sesame, and ponie, and

use the Hand of Glory as a candlestick to hold this candle when lighted, and then those in every place into which you go with this baneful instrument shall remain motionless

De Givry points out the difficulties with the meaning of the words *zimat* and *ponie*, saying it is likely "ponie" means horse-dung, [8] while being uncertain whether zimat should mean verdigris or the Arabian sulphate of iron. The Petit Albert also provides a way to shield a house from the effects of the Hand of Glory:

The Hand of Glory would become ineffective, and thieves would not be able to utilize it, if you were to rub the threshold or other parts of the house by which they may enter with an unguent composed of the gall of a black cat, the fat of a white hen, and the blood of the screechowl; this substance must be compounded during the dog-days [9]



The hand of glory on display at Whitby Museum.

At the Whitby Museum an actual Hand of Glory is kept, together with a text published in a book from 1823. In this manuscript text, the way to make the Hand of Glory is as follows:^[10]

It must be cut from the body of a criminal on the gibbet; pickled in salt, and the urine of man, woman, dog, horse and mare; smoked with herbs and hay for a month; hung on an oak tree for three nights running, then laid at a crossroads, then hung on a church door for one night while the maker keeps watch in the porch-"and if it be that no fear hath driven you forth from the porch...then the hand be true won, and it be yours"

2 3 IN POPULAR CULTURE

2 In literature

Severed hands in an occult context occur as early as Herodotus's "Tale of Rhampsinitus" (ii, 121), in which a clever thief leaves a dead hand behind in order to avoid capture. They also appear in early stories of lycanthropy, such as Henry Boguet's *Discours exécrable de sorciers* in 1590.^[11]

In 1832 Gérard de Nerval wrote the short story "La main de gloire, histoire macaronique" ("The Hand of Glory, a Macaronic Story"). The same year Aloysius Bertrand published "L'heure du Sabbat" ("The Hour of the Sabbat"). [12] Guy de Maupassant made his debut with "La main d'écorché" ("The Flayed Hand") (1875) one of his first stories in the *Lorraine Almanac Pont-à-Mousson* under the pseudonym Joseph Prunier. Marcel Schwob wrote an uncollected short story about it: "La Main de gloire" ("The Hand of Glory", which was published in *L'Echo de Paris* in March 11, 1893. [13][14]

The second of the Ingoldsby Legends, "The Hand of Glory, or, The Nurse's Story", describes the making and use of a Hand of Glory. [15] The first lines are:

Now open, lock!

To the Dead Man's knock!

Fly, bolt, and bar, and band!

Nor move, nor swerve,

Joint, muscle, or nerve,

At the spell of the Dead Man's hand!

Sleep, all who sleep! -- Wake, all who wake!

But be as the dead for the Dead Man's sake!

Théophile Gautier wrote a poem on the subject of the hand of the poet thief Lacenaire, severed after his execution for a double murder, presumably for future use as a hand of glory.^{[16][17][18]}

3 In popular culture

- "Hand of Glory" is the name of a public house in the 1944 film, *A Canterbury Tale*.
- "Hand of Glory" is the title of a song by the band Witch (band).
- In the *Supernatural*, episode "Red Sky at Morning", the brothers are hunting down a Hand of Glory in order to burn it and stop the spirit of the thief it was taken from. This was the thief's right hand though.
- In the Harry Potter series, a Hand of Glory appears twice: once in *The Chamber of Secrets* (for sale) and again in *The Half-Blood Prince* (in the possession of Draco Malfoy) as an object which grants illumination only to its holder.

• *Hand of Glory* is the title of the second album from the Cornish band Spriggan.

- "Hand of Glory" is a song from The Smithereens' album Especially for You.
- In the film *Angel Heart*, the character played by Charlotte Rampling keeps a Hand of Glory in a box.
- In *Neverwhere* by Neil Gaiman, a Hand of Glory is offered for sale to Richard.
- In *The Golem's Eye* by Jonathan Stroud, Harlequin carries a Hand of Glory.
- A Hand of Glory is employed against Sgt. Howie as he feigns sleep in *The Wicker Man*.
- The legend is the basis for the 2011 dark thriller *Hand of Glory*.
- The Hand of Glory is used as a model for the Transient Curse Item in video game *Dark Souls*
- In the video game *Thief: The Dark Project*, collecting a Hand of Glory is a mission objective for the Cragscleft Prison mission
- In Hellboy's Box Full of Evil story and Being Human story, a Hand of Glory is used to paralyse everyone except the holder of the hand.
- In *The Invisibles* by Grant Morrison, large parts of the plot surround attempts from both the Invisibles and the Outer Church to obtain and find out how to control a Hand of Glory. In the comic, it is seen has having the propensity to open doors in timespace i.e. open gates to other worlds and ages.
- In the Lost Girl episode "Fae Gone Wild", a Hand
 of Glory is created by a group of selkies fae who
 become human when they remove their seal pelts –
 to recover their pelt from a safe; this version of the
 Hand is able to penetrate any defence when the candle it holds is lit, and the candle can only be put out
 by milk.
- Episode 7 of *The Dresden Files* has Harry tracking down three college students who are using a Hand of Glory to bypass high tech security systems.
- A Hand of Glory appears in the episode "The House with a Clock in Its Walls" in the after school special entitled *Once Upon a Midnight Scary*, hosted by Vincent Price (who claims to have used it several times). It is based on the book by John Bellairs.
- In the 1997 film Quicksilver Highway, Christopher Lloyd's character (Aaron Quicksilver) uses a Hand of Glory as the vehicle to tell his second tale of horror and poetic irony. His description of the Hand of Glory is very accurate when compared to traditional lore.

- Andrew Bird's second 2012 album is entitled "Hands Of Glory."
- In Charles Stross' *Laundry Files* series, Hands of Glory are part of the standard equipment for occult field agents.
- In Randall Garrett's short story "The Eyes Have It" (1964) from the Lord Darcy series; a character dabbling in dark magic has a Hand of Glory among his equipment. It is described as a mummified human hand serving as a candelabra, each of the fingers a candlestick.
- In the 1993 film *Hocus Pocus*, three witches, hanged during the Salem witch mania in the 17th century, are brought back to life by the lighting of a "black flame candle", made from the rendered fat of a hanged man.
- In Buffy the Vampire Slayer episode "No Place Like Home" the Hand of Glory is referenced for sale, though recognized as packing some serious raw power which should require a seven day background check.
- The Constantine episode, "The Devil's Vinyl", features a Hand of Glory. He describes the process as taking the left hand of a hanged man, pickling it in amniotic fluid for seven years, and keeping the dead awake until the flames on the fingers all go out.

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- [8] De Givry is expressly using the 1722 edition, where the phrase is, according to John Livingston Lowes "du Sisame et de la Ponie" and de Givry notes that the meaning of "ponie" as "horse dung" is entirely unknown "to us", but that in local Lower Normandy dialect, it has that meaning. His reason for regarding this interpretation as "more than probable" is that horse-dung is "very combustible, when dry". Lowes, John L. (1927). THE ROAD TO XANADU A Study in the Ways of the Imagination. Houghton Mifflin. p. 556. In the French 1752 edition (called Nouvelle Edition corrige&augmente, i.e, "New Edition, corrected and augmented"), however, this reads as "..du sisame de Laponie...", that is, in for example, Francis Grose's translation from 1787, "sisame of Lapland", Lapland sesame. This interpretation can be found many places on the Internet, and even in books published at university presses. Lucius Parvus Albertus (1752). Secrets merveilleux de la magie naturelle et cabalistique du Petit Albert. Lyon: les heritiers de Beringos frates. p. 113. and Grose, Francis (1787). A provincial glossary: with a collection of local proverbs, and popular superstitions. London: S. Hooper. p. 75. For an example of published books perpetuating the Lapland sesame myth, see: Daniels, Cora L.; Stevans, C.M. (2003 (1903)). Encyclopedia of Superstitions, Folklore, and the Occult Sciences of the World. Honolulu, HA: University of the Pacific Press(The Minerva Group, Inc). p. 1332. ISBN 9781410209160. Check date values in: ldate= (help) and Montague Summers' "A popular history of Witchcraft", Summers, Montague (2012). A Popular History of Witchcraft. London: Routledge. p. 60. ISBN 9781136740183.
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5 EXTERNAL LINKS

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5 External links

- The Hand of Glory and other gory legends about human hands Edited by D. L. Ashliman.
- Hand of Glory Manufacture and use of the Hand of Glory.

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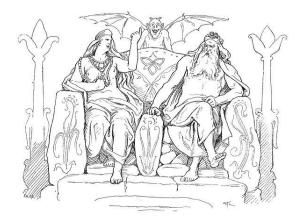
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Hlidskjalf



Frigg and Odin wagering upon Hliðskjálf in Grímnismál (1895) by Lorenz Frølich.

This article is about the throne of the Norse god Odin. For the Burzum album, see Hliðskjálf (album).

In Norse mythology, **Hliðskjálf** ['hlið skjɑ:lf, -sçɑ:lf] is the high seat of Odin allowing him to see into all realms.^[1]

1 Poetic Edda

In *Grímnismál*, Odin and Frigg are both sitting in Hliðskjálf when they see their foster sons Agnarr and Geirröðr, one living in a cave with a giantess and the other a king. Frigg then made the accusation to her husband that Geirröðr was miserly and inhospitable toward guests, so after wagering with one another over the veracity of the statement Odin set out to visit Geirröðr in order to settle the matter.

In *Skírnismál*, it is Freyr who sits in Hliðskjálf when he looks into Jötunheimr and sees the beautiful giant maiden Gerðr, with whom he instantly falls in love.

2 Prose Edda

In *Gylfaginning*, Snorri mentions the high seat on four occasions. In the first instance he seems to refer to it rather as a dwelling place: "There is one abode called Hliðskjálf, and when Allfather sat in the high seat there, he looked out over the whole world and saw every man's acts, and knew all things which he saw."

However, later he explicitly refers to it as the high seat itself: "Another great abode is there, which is named Valaskjálf. Odin possesses that dwelling. The gods made it and thatched it with sheer silver, and in this hall is the Hliðskjálf, the high seat so called. Whenever Allfather sits in that seat, he surveys all lands."

The third mention made of Hliðskjálf is during Snorri's recounting of the wooing of Gerd, quoted by him from *Skírnismál*. Lastly, Snorri relates how Odin used the high seat to find Loki after he fled from the scene of his murder of Baldr.

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4 See also

- Öndvegissúlur
- Valaskjálf

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Palladium (classical antiquity)

"The Luck of Troy" redirects here. For the novel, see Roger Lancelyn Green.

In Greek and Roman mythology, the palladium or pal-



Nike (Victory) offers an egg to a snake entwined around a column surmounted by the Trojan Palladium. (Marble bas relief, Roman copy of the late 1st century AD. After a neo-Attic original of the Hellenistic era.)

ladion was a cult image of great antiquity on which the safety of Troy and later Rome was said to depend, the wooden statue (*xoanon*) of Pallas Athena that Odysseus and Diomedes stole from the citadel of Troy and which was later taken to the future site of Rome by Aeneas. The Roman story is related in Virgil's *Aeneid* and other works.

In English, since around 1600, the word palladium has been used figuratively to mean anything believed to provide protection or safety, [1] and in particular in Christian contexts a sacred relic or icon believed to have a protective role in military contexts for a whole city, people or nation. Such beliefs first become prominent in the Eastern church in the period after the reign of the Byzantine Emperor Justinian I, and later spread to the Western church. Palladia were carried in procession around the walls of besieged cities and sometimes carried into battle.^[2]



Ajax the Lesser drags Cassandra from the Palladium. Detail from a Roman fresco in the atrium of the Casa del Menandro (I 10, 4) in Pompeii.

1 The Trojan Palladium

1.1 Origins

The Trojan Palladium was said to be a wooden image of Pallas (whom the Greeks identified with Athena and the Romans with Minerva) and to have fallen from heaven in answer to the prayer of Ilus, the founder of Troy.

"The most ancient talismanic effigies of Athena," Ruck and Staples report, "...were magical found objects, faceless pillars of Earth in the old manner, before the Goddess was anthropomorphized and given form through the intervention of human intellectual meddling." [3]

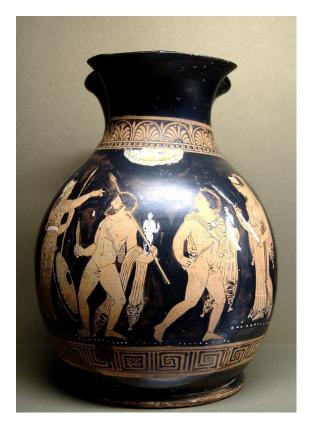
1.2 Arrival at Troy

The arrival at Troy of the Palladium, fashioned by Athena^[4] in remorse for the death of Pallas,^[5] as part of the city's founding myth, was variously referred to by Greeks, from the seventh century BC onwards. The Palladium was linked to the Samothrace mysteries through the pre-Olympian figure of Elektra, mother of Dard-

anus, progenitor of the Trojan royal line, and of Iasion, founder of the Samothrace mysteries. [6] Whether Elektra had come to Athena's shrine of the Palladium as a pregnant suppliant and a god cast it into the territory of Ilium, because it had been profaned by the hands of a woman who was not a virgin, [7] or whether Elektra carried it herself [8] or whether it was given directly to Dardanus [9] vary in sources and scholia. In Ilion, King Ilus was blinded for touching the image to preserve it from a burning temple. [10]

1.3 Theft

2



Odysseus and Diomedes steal the Palladium from Troy. (Apulian red-figure oinochoe of ca. 360–350 BC from Reggio di Calabria.)

During the Trojan War, the importance of the Palladium to Troy was said to have been revealed to the Greeks by Helenus, the prophetic son of Priam. After Paris' death, Helenus left the city but was captured by Odysseus. The Greeks somehow managed to persuade the warrior seer to reveal the weakness of Troy. The Greeks learned from Helenus, that Troy would not fall while the Palladium, image or statue of Athena, remained within Troy's walls. The difficult task of stealing this sacred statue again fell upon the shoulders of Odysseus and Diomedes. Since Troy could not be captured while it safeguarded this image, the Greeks Diomedes and Odysseus made their way to the citadel in Troy by a secret passage and carried it off. In this way the Greeks were then able to enter Troy and lay it waste using the deceit of the Trojan Horse.

Odysseus, according to The Epic Cycle, in Proclus's summary of The Little Iliad, went by night to Troy in disguise and entered the city as a beggar. There he was recognized by Helen, who told him where the Palladium was. After killing some of the Trojans, he returned to the ships. He and Diomedes then re-entered the city and stole the Palladium.

Diomedes is sometimes regarded as the person who physically removed the Palladium and carried it away to the ships. There are several statues and many ancient drawings of him with the Palladium.

In the *Narratives* of the Augustan period mythographer Conon, summarised by Photius, on the way to the ships, Odysseus plotted to kill Diomedes and claim the Palladium (or perhaps the credit for gaining it) for himself. He raised his sword to stab Diomedes in the back. Diomedes was alerted to the danger by glimpsing the gleam of the sword in the moonlight. He disarmed Odysseus, tied his hands, and drove him along in front, beating his back with the flat of his sword. From this action was said to have arisen the Greek proverbial expression "Diomedes' necessity", applied to those who act under compulsion.^[11] Because Odysseus was essential for the destruction of Troy, Diomedes refrained from punishing him.

Diomedes took the Palladium with him when he left Troy. According to some stories, he brought it to Italy. Some say that it was stolen from him on the way.

1.4 Arrival at Rome

According to various versions of this legend the Trojan Palladium found its way to Athens, or Argos, or Sparta (all in Greece), or Rome in Italy. To this last city it was either brought by Aeneas the exiled Trojan (Diomedes, in this version, having only succeeded in stealing an imitation of the statue) or surrendered by Diomedes himself. It was kept there in the Temple of Vesta in the Roman Forum for centuries. It was regarded as one of the *pignora imperii*, sacred tokens or pledges of Roman rule (*imperium*).

Pliny the Elder^[12] said that Lucius Caecilius Metellus had been blinded by fire when he rescued the Palladium from the Temple of Vesta in 241 BC, an episode alluded to in Ovid^[13] and Valerius Maximus.^[14]

When the controversial emperor Elagabalus (reigned 218–222) transferred the most sacred relics of Roman religion from their respective shrines to the Elagabalium, the Palladium was among them.^[15]

In Late Antiquity, it was rumored that the Palladium was transferred from Rome to Constantinople by Constantine the Great and buried under the Column of Constantine in his forum. [16] Such a move would have undermined the primacy of Rome, and was naturally seen as a move by Constantine to legitimize his reign.

2 The Athenian Palladium

The goddess Athena was worshipped on the Acropolis of Athens under many names and cults, the most illustrious of which was of the Athena Poliás, "protectress of the city". The cult image of the *Poliás* was a wooden effigy, often referred to as the "xóanon diipetés" (the "carving that fell from heaven"), made of olive wood and housed in the east-facing wing of the Erechtheum temple in the classical era. Considered not a man-made artefact but of divine provenance, it was the holiest image of the goddess and was accorded the highest respect. It was placed under a bronze likeness of a palm tree and a gold lamp burned in front of it. The centerpiece of the grand feast of the Panathenaea was the replacement of this statue's woolen veil with a newly woven one. It was also carried to the sea by the priestesses and ceremonially washed once a year, in the feast called the *Plynteria* ("washings"). Its presence was last mentioned by the Church Father Tertullian (Apologeticus 16.6), who, in the late 2nd century AD, described it derisively as being nothing but "a rough stake, a shapeless piece of wood" (Latin original: "[] Pallas Attica [] quae sine effigie rudi palo et informi ligno prostat?"). Earlier descriptions of the statue have not survived.

3 See also

• Tutelary deity

4 Notes

- [1] OED, "Palladium, 2", first recorded use 1600
- [2] Kitzinger, 109-112
- [3] Carl Ruck and Danny Staples, *The World of Classical Myth*.
- [4] The trope of an icon not fashioned by human hands survives in the Christian *acheiropoieta*.
- [5] Bibliotheke iii.144.
- [6] Bibliotheke, iii.10.1, iii.12.1 and 3.
- [7] Bibliotheke iii.145.
- [8] Scholia on Euripides Phoenissae 1136.
- [9] Triphiodorus (fourth century AD), *Taking of Ilios* (on-line text).
- [10] Dercyllus, *Foundations of Cities*, Book i, noted by Pseudo-Plutarch *Parallel Stories*, "Ilus and Anytus".
- [11] This incident was commemorated in 1842 by the French sculptor Pierre-Jules Cavelier (1814–94) in a muscle-bound plaster statue; it depicts Diomedes alone, his noble face peering apprehensively over his right shoulder, as he cradles the Palladium.

- [12] Natural History; VII, XLV
- [13] Fast. B. vi. 1. 436, et seq.
- [14] B. i. c. 4
- [15] Augustan History, Life of Elagabalus 3
- [16] Averil Cameron (1993), The Later Roman Empire, 170.

5 References

Kitzinger, Ernst, "The Cult of Images in the Age before Iconoclasm", *Dumbarton Oaks Papers*, Vol. 8, (1954), pp. 83–150, Dumbarton Oaks, Trustees for Harvard University, JSTOR

5.1 Other sources

• The Oxford Dictionary of Classical Myth and Religion. s.v. "Palladium".

6 External links

• Diomedes with the Palladium

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Reginnaglar

Reginnaglar (singular *reginnagli*) is a word occurring twice in Old Norse. Its meaning is unclear but it is a compound of *reginn*, "powers/rulers/gods/sacred" and *naglar*, "nails".^[1] Despite its rarity, the word has occasioned quite extensive scholarly debate because it may give insight into Norse mythology.

1 Occurrence in Glælognskviða

The first attestation is in a rather cryptic kenning in stanza 10 of the skaldic poem *Glælognskviða* by Þórarinn loftunga, thought to date from 1030×34. In it Þórarinn advises King Svein Knutsson of Norway, encouraging him to pray to his predecessor, Olaf II of Norway; the poem is among our earliest evidence for Olaf's status as a saint in Norway. One of the exhortations to Sveinn to pray runs

þás þú rekr fyr reginnagla bóka máls bænir þínar

which appears literally to mean 'when you perform/present your prayers in front of the sacred nail(s) [reginnagla] of the language/speech/measure/inlaid decoration of books'. [2] The main interpretations of the phrase 'reginnalga bóka máls' have been:

- 1. 'altar' or 'shrine' (taking the 'sacred nails of the language of books [i.e. Latin]' as a metonymy for the whole object)
- 'priests' or 'St Olaf' (taking the 'sacred nail(s) of the language of books [i.e. Latin]' as a kenning either for priests generally or Olaf specifically)
- 3. 'liturgical book' (taking the 'sacred nails of the language/inlaid decoration of books' to refer to an ornamented book cover). [3]

Of these, 'Olaf' has historically been the most common and 'liturgical book', suggested by Margaret Clunies Ross, the most recent (as of 2014).

2 Occurrence in Eyrbyggja saga

The other attestation of *reginnaglar* is in the Icelandic saga *Eyrbyggja saga*, which relates the use of reginnaglar

in the construction of a temple by Þórólfur Mostrarskegg (Thorolf Most-Beard):

Thereafter Thorolf fared with fire through his land out from Staff-river in the west, and east to that river which is now called Thors-river, and settled his shipmates there. But he set up for himself a great house at Templewick which he called Templestead. There he let build a temple, and a mighty house it was. There was a door in the side-wall and nearer to one end thereof. Within the door stood the pillars of the high-seat, and nails were therein; they were called the Gods' nails.^[4]

Here the nails clearly represent some kind of metal, nail-like decorative feature of the high-seat pillars, and Clunies Ross sees it as plausible that despite the lateness of the source, it does represent a feature of pre-Christian material culture.^[5]

3 References

- [1] Margaret Clunies Ross, ' Reginnaglar', in News from Other Worlds/Tíðendi ór oðrum heimum: Studies in Nordic Folklore, Mythology and Culture in Honor of John F. Lindow, ed. by Merrill Kaplan and Timothy R. Tangherlini, Wildcat Canyon Advanced Seminars Occasional Monographs, 1 (Berkeley, CA: North Pinehurst Press, 2012), pp. 3-21 (p. 11); books.google.com/books? isbn=0578101742.
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- [4] Eyrbyggja saga, William Morris & Eirikr Magnusson translation (1892), Ch. 4.

2 4 SEE ALSO

[5] Margaret Clunies Ross, 'Reginnaglar', in News from Other Worlds/Tíðendi ór oðrum heimum: Studies in Nordic Folklore, Mythology and Culture in Honor of John F. Lindow, ed. by Merrill Kaplan and Timothy R. Tangherlini, Wildcat Canyon Advanced Seminars Occasional Monographs, 1 (Berkeley, CA: North Pinehurst Press, 2012), pp. 3-21 (pp. 14-17); books.google.com/ books?isbn=0578101742.

4 See also

- Clay nail
- Öndvegissúlur

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Sampo

For other uses, see Sampo (disambiguation).

In Finnish mythology, the *Sampo* or *Sammas* was a magical artifact of indeterminate type constructed by Ilmarinen that brought good fortune to its holder. When the Sampo was stolen, it is said that Ilmarinen's homeland fell upon hard times and he sent an expedition to retrieve it, but in the ensuing battle it was smashed and lost at sea.

The Sampo has been interpreted in many ways: a world pillar or world tree, a compass or astrolabe, a chest containing a treasure, a Byzantine coin die, a decorated Vendel period shield, a Christian relic, etc. In the *Kalevala*, compiler Lönnrot interpreted it to be a quern or mill of some sort that made flour, salt, and gold out of thin air. The world pillar hypothesis, originally developed by historian of religions Uno Harva and the linguist Eemil Nestor Setälä in the early 20th century, is the most widely accepted one.^[1]

According to Giorgio de Santillana, professor of the history of science at MIT, and student of mythology, the sampo and the world pillar both refer to the precession of the equinox. In Hamlet's Mill, co-authored with Hertha von Dechend, the authors find that the sampo or precession process was believed to grind out different world ages, from dark age to golden age and back again over the long precession cycle.

1 Description in the Kalevala

The Sampo is a pivotal element of the plot of the Finnish epic poem *Kalevala*, compiled in 1835 (and expanded in 1849) by Elias Lönnrot based on earlier Finnish oral tradition.

In the expanded second version of the poem, the Sampo is forged by Ilmarinen, a legendary smith, as a task set by the Mistress of Pohjola in return for her daughter's hand.

"Ilmarinen, worthy brother,
Thou the only skilful blacksmith,
Go and see her wondrous beauty,
See her gold and silver garments,
See her robed in finest raiment,
See her sitting on the rainbow,
Walking on the clouds of purple.
Forge for her the magic Sampo,



The Forging of the Sampo by Akseli Gallen-Kallela

Forge the lid in many colors,
Thy reward shall be the virgin,
Thou shalt win this bride of beauty;
Go and bring the lovely maiden
To thy home in Kalevala."[2]

Ilmarinen works for several days at a mighty forge until finally the Sampo is created:

On one side the flour is grinding,
On another salt is making,
On a third is money forging,
And the lid is many-colored.
Well the Sampo grinds when finished,
To and fro the lid in rocking,
Grinds one measure at the day-break,
Grinds a measure fit for eating,
Grinds a second for the market,
Grinds a third one for the store-house.^[2]

2 6 EXTERNAL LINKS



The Defense of the Sampo by Akseli Gallen-Kallela

Later, Louhi the sorceress steals the Sampo, provoking Ilmarinen and Väinämöinen to enter her stronghold in secret and retrieve it. Louhi, in reply, pursues them and combats Väinämöinen. In the struggle, Louhi is vanquished but the Sampo is destroyed.

2 Portrayal in film

In 1959 the joint Soviet-Finnish film production *Sampo* (titled *The Day the Earth Froze* when released in the United States) adapted the Kalevala to the big screen. Directed by Risto Orko and Aleksandr Ptushko, and written by Väinö Kaukonen and Viktor Vitkovich, the movie somewhat alters the circumstances surrounding the Sampo's creation; Louhi kidnaps Ilmarinen's sister Annikki to compel him to build a Sampo for her. However, the movie remains reasonably true to the original tale in broad outline, and the Sampo's fate is the same.

Episode 422 of *Mystery Science Theater 3000*, produced in the 1992–93 season, featured *The Day the Earth Froze*. Though the movie does explain what a Sampo is, the *MST3K* characters are talking during the explanation and miss it, and are therefore confused throughout the film as to what exactly a "Sampo" is, and argue about their own theories throughout the rest of the episode. In Episode 506, "Eegah", they receive a letter from a fan which includes a photograph of a Sampo portable television set - Sampo Corporation is a Taiwanese electrical manufacturer that produces televisions, amongst other products.^[3]

The Sampo is also being forged in the 2006 movie *Jade Warrior*. The movie is a Finnish-Chinese co-production and is loosely based on the Kalevala and includes Wuxia elements as well.

3 Similar devices

The Cornucopia of Greek mythology also produces endless goods.

Some versions of the Grail myth emphasize how the Grail creates food and goods.

The Mill Grótti of the Grottasöngr in Nordic mythology also produces gold (as well as peace and happiness) and salt.

Japanese folktale *Shiofuki usu* speaks of a grindstone that could be used to create anything. Like Sampo, it too was lost to the sea, endlessly grinding salt.

The Mahabharatha speaks about the Akshaya Pathram, a vessel/bowl capable of creating food. It stopped providing at the end of the day when the lady of the house had her last meal. This vessel was provided to the Pandavas, when in exile, by Krishna.

The sankara stone, sought by Indiana Jones and his comrades in Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom, is essential to the wellbeing of the village from which it was taken.

The World Mill is a hypothesized mytheme shared by the mythologies of certain Indo-European-speaking peoples, involving the analogy of the cosmos or the firmament (Finnish: *Taivaankansi*) and a rotating millstone. The aforementioned Grótti is sometimes seen as an example of the mytheme.

4 See also

- Ilmarinen
- Kalevala
- MacGuffin

5 References

- [1] http://www.websters-dictionary-online.com/definitions/ Sampo?cx=partner-pub-0939450753529744% 3Av0qd01-tdlq&cof=FORID%3A9&ie=UTF-8& q=Sampo&sa=Search#922
- [2] Kalevala, Rune X. Translated by John Martin Crawford (1888).
- [3] Sampo Corporation Official Site

6 External links

- Sampo at the Internet Movie Database
- Jade Warrior at the Internet Movie Database

• Finnish Literature Society's Kalevala site

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Winnowing Oar

The **Winnowing Oar** (athereloigos - Greek $\partial \theta \eta \rho \eta \lambda o \iota \gamma \delta \varsigma$) is an object that appears in Books XI and XXIII of Homer's Odyssey. [1] In the epic, Odysseus is instructed by Tiresias to take an oar from his ship and to walk inland until he finds a "land that knows nothing of the sea", where the oar would be mistaken for a winnowing fan. At this point, he is to offer a sacrifice to Poseidon, and then at last his journeys would be over.

1 In popular culture

- The Winnowing Oar appears in "The Oar," a poem by Michael Longley.
- Seamus Heaney alludes to the Winnowing Oar in his poem "Wolfe Tone."
- The poet Eiléan Ní Chuilleanáin writes of the Winnowing Oar in her poem "The Second Voyage."
- In 2003 the artist Conrad Shawcross created a work, *Winnowing Oar*, based on the object. Sculpted in oak, spruce and ash, it is an imaginary tool with a winnowing fan at one end and an oar blade at the other. [2] It formed part of the Shawcross' 2004 *Continuum* exhibition at the National Maritime Museum. [3]

2 References

- [1] The Odyssey, Perseus Project
- [2] Winnowing Oar, Conrad Shawcross, Victoria Miro Gallery
- [3] Continuum, NMM

3 External links

• An essay on the winnowing-fan and its meaning

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Chapter 1

Pair Dadeni

In Welsh mythology and literature, the **Pair Dadeni** (The Cauldron of Rebirth) is a magical cauldron able to revive the dead. It plays a key role in the second branch of the Mabinogi. It has parallels with a number of other magic cauldrons in Welsh legend and folklore, including cauldron of Diwrnach the Irishman in *Culhwch and Olwen*, the cauldron of the Head of Annwn in *Preiddeu Annwfn* and the cauldron of Cerridwen in the tale of Taliesin.

1.1 Role in Welsh mythology

The cauldron belonged initially to the giant Llasar Llasar Gyfnewid and his wife Cymydei Cymeinfoll, who lived within the Lake of the Cauldron, in Ireland. Discovered by the Irish king Matholwch, they were given a place at his court, but soon earned the contempt of the Irish for their behaviour. Ultimately, the Irish attempted to burn them to death within their Iron House, forcing the giant and giantess to flee to the Island of the Mighty, where they are received by King Bendigeidfran. In response to his hospitality, the giants give the cauldron to Bendigeidfran as a gift.

Some time later Matholwch sails to Harlech to speak with Bendigeidfran and to ask for the hand of his sister Branwen in marriage, thus forging an alliance between the two islands. Bendigeidfran agrees to Matholwch's request, but the celebrations are cut short when Efnysien, a half-brother to the children of Llŷr, brutally mutilates Matholwch's horses, angry that his permission was not sought in regards to the marriage. Matholwch is deeply offended until Bran offers him compensation in the form of the Pair Dadeni that can restore the dead to life. Pleased with the gift, Matholwch and Branwen sail back to Ireland to reign.

Once in Matholwch's kingdom, Branwen gives birth to a son, Gwern, but Efnysien's insult continues to rankle among the Irish and, eventually, Branwen is mistreated, kept in the palace kitchen and beaten every day. She tames a starling and sends it across the Irish Sea with a message to her brother Bendigeidfran, who sails from Wales to Ireland to rescue her with his brother, Manawydan and a huge host of warriors, mustered from the 154 cantrefs of Britain. The Irish offer to make peace and build a house big enough to entertain Bendigeidfrân but hang a hundred bags inside, supposedly containing flour but actually containing armed warriors. Efnisien, suspecting treachery, reconnoitres the hall and kills the warriors by crushing their skulls. Later, at the feast, Efnisien, again feeling insulted, murders Gwern by burning him alive, and, as a result, a vicious battle breaks out. Seeing that the Irish are using the cauldron to revive their dead, Efnisien hides among the Irish corpses and is thrown into the cauldron by the unwitting enemy. He destroys the cauldron from within, sacrificing himself in the process.

Chapter 2

Nanteos Cup



An example of a 14th-century mazer, similar in design to the Nanteos Cup. This mazer is fashioned from maplewood and retains its silver-gilt rim. Made around 1380, it is in the collection of the Victoria and Albert Museum, London

The **Nanteos Cup** (Welsh: *Cwpan Nanteos*) is a medieval wood mazer bowl, held for many years at Nanteos Mansion, Rhydyfelin, near Aberystwyth in Wales. [1] Since at least the late 19th century it has been attributed with a supernatural ability to heal those who drink from it and traditionally believed to be fashioned from a piece of the True Cross. [2] By the early 20th century it had become a candidate - one of at least 200 in Europe - for the Holy Grail. [3][4] Juliette Wood, a folklorist specialising in medieval folklore and Celtic mythology, has stated that there is "no credible reference" to the cup prior to the end of the 19th century and "no mention of possible connections to the Grail until 1905."[5]

In 1977 the cup was displayed at the National Library of Wales, Aberystwyth, as part of the "Aberystwyth 1277-1977" celebrations marking the 700th anniversary of the granting of the town's charter by Edward I. Specialists from

the Royal Commission on the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Wales used the opportunity to examine the cup and concluded that it dated from the Late Middle Ages and was carved from wych elm.^[6] In July 2014 it was reported that the cup had been stolen from a house in Weston under Penyard while the occupant to whom it had been loaned was in hospital.^[7]

2.1 Description

The vessel is a shallow, hardwood bowl without handles, with a broad flat foot. Originally it would have stood 10cm in height, with a diameter of 12cm, although it has been extensively damaged over the years and slightly less than half of the bowl remains. Unlike other examples of mazers, it has no boss or knob in the centre of the inside, and there is no evidence that one has been removed or lost due to damage. [6] It is fashioned from hardwood, most likely wych elm, with no visible decorations. A groove which may previously have held a metal rim runs around the lip. [8]

2.2 History

2.2.1 George Powell

The Nanteos Cup was first exhibited by George Ernest John Powell (1842-1882) in 1878 at St David's College, Lampeter (now University of Wales, Trinity Saint David), during a meeting of the Cambrian Archaeological Society. He was the son of Colonel William Powell (1815-1878), from whom he inherited the Nanteos estate in 1878, and had spent most of his adult life in London and France, having "sufficient means to pursue a life of travelling - throughout Europe, northern Africa and Iceland - writing poetry and indulging his passion for both music and collecting books, music manuscripts, autograph letters, fine and decorative art, coins and 'curiosities'." [10]

Powell was an amateur romantic poet and a close friend of Algernon Charles Swinburne, whom he met while studying at Oxford. Swinburne had a long-held "fascination" for the Arthurian legends and was a close associate of William Morris and Dante Gabriel Rossetti, both of whom shared the same interest. Morris and Edward Burne-Jones spent "much time reading and discussing" *Le Morte d'Arthur* while at Oxford, and Rossetti contributed woodcut illustrations to the Arthurian poems in an 1857 edition of Alfred, Lord Tennyson's work. During the summer of 1857 Morris and Rossetti took a commission to paint the upper walls and roof of the Oxford Union debating-hall with scenes from *Le Morte d'Arthur*.

Swinburne had first read the story of *Tristan and Iseult* as a child, and at Oxford, influenced by Morris, wrote a number of Arthurian poems including *Queen Yseult*, *Lancelot* and *Joyeuse Garde*. Following the publication of Tennyson's *The Holy Grail* in 1869 Swinburne "set to work in earnest on the theme of Tristram and Iseult."

In a short fictional work, *L'anglais d'Etretat*, the French writer Guy de Maupassant said of Powell: "He loved the supernatural, the macabre, the tortured, the intricate and every form of derangement." [10] Neil Holland, Curator of Collections at Aberystwyth University, wrote in his biography of Powell that he followed in "the tradition of many eccentric collectors such as Ludwig II of Bavaria and William Beckford" and "flirted with the boundaries of acceptable behaviour" although on "rather a less lavish scale." [10]

He amassed a large collection of "paintings, objets d'art, curios, souvenirs and relics" that he bequeathed to Aberystwyth University. The collection was made up of many objects described by Powell as "antiquities and curiosities" and also included 150 oil paintings, watercolours, prints and drawings (including pencil drawings by Rossetti), 1,700 books, 11 volumes of correspondents' letters, Japanese ivory carvings, a Chinese magician's crystal wand and a fragment of Robert Schumann's coffin. Holland writes that the collection, although "imbued with Powell's own slant on the world" and "representative of his personal enthusiasms [with] strong significance as precious souvenirs of friends and relics of heroes" included many objects "without provenance", 'attributed', copies or even fakes." [10]

Powell was also "a fanatical devotee" of German composer Richard Wagner and attended the first performance of Wagner's *Der Ring des Nibelungen* as a complete cycle at Bayreuth, Germany, in August 1876. ^[10] In September 1876 Powell wrote to Swinburne that he had subsequently dined with Wagner and his wife Cosima. ^[10]

Powell died following a short illness in 1882 and the estate was inherited by his father's cousin William Beauclerk Powell (1834-1911).^[15]

2.2. HISTORY 5



George Powell (1842-1882)

2.2.2 First public exhibition

The minutes of the meeting in 1878 of the Cambrian Archaeological Society at which the cup was first exhibited record that George Powell introduced the object and gave an account of it being "preserved for many years past at Nanteos", having formerly been in the possession of the abbey at Strata Florida (Welsh: *Ystrad Fflur*, "Vale of Flowers"). The minutes also state:

It was supposed to possess healing power, which could only be called miraculous. It was sent for to the house of a sick man, and some valuable object was left as a pledge to ensure its safe return. The

patient had to drink wine or some liquor out of it. Not content with this, he sometimes nibbled a piece from its edge: hence its present unshapely condition. The source of its alleged virtues were supposed to lie in its having formed a portion of the True Cross. I think there can be little doubt that so much of its pedigree is true as traces it to the possession of the Cistercians at Strata Florida. Nothing is more probable than that it was preserved in their church as a relic to which thaumaturgic powers were ascribed. The veneration accorded to it in the neighbourhood, and, still more decidedly, a regard for their own health and that of their families, would prompt the country-people to bring some pressure to bear on those who would otherwise have destroyed it, to secure this valuable relic. Probably the new lords of Strata Florida had some belief in its efficacy. If this account of the matter is true, the relic is extremely interesting, as an example of the survival of medieval belief, and even of medieval practice, down to our own day, in a country in which the popular religious sentiments are certainly not tinged with medievalism. [16]

The cup was correctly identified and subsequently catalogued by the Society as a wooden mazer dating from the Middle Ages. [17][18] A drawing made around the same time by Worthington George Smith shows the cup in the same damaged condition as it exists today, held together with 2 metal staples. [19] Wood found that prior to 1878 "evidence for a relic at Nanteos [was] lacking" and that it had not appeared in Samuel Rush Meyrick's survey, published as *The History and Antiquities of the County of Cardiganshire*, in 1809. Wood also noted that Worthington G. Smith had made sketches of archaeological excavations at Strata Florida Abbey and suggested that the cup may actually have been found during those excavations. [19] Powell was known to have had repairs carried out to make the unstable abbey ruins safe and the appearance of the Nanteos Cup "coincided quite closely" with these repairs. [11] Richard Barber, a historian specialising in Arthurian legends, has also proposed that the cup was probably discovered at the site of the abbey in the 19th century. [11] John Thomas Evans, in his *The Church Plate of Cardiganshire* (1914), suggested that the cup may have been passed to the Powell family from the Stedman family, who owned the Strata Florida estate, when Richard Stedman died in 1746:

At this time, no doubt, the Powell family came into possession of what is now known as "The Tregaron Healing Cup", or "The Nanteos Healing Cup". Sir S. R. Meyrick does not mention it in his Hist of Cardiganshire (1810), nor, as far as I am aware, do any of the innumerable English tourists, but extraordinary tales have been told (since about 1836) of the healing powers supposed to be possessed by this fragment of what is probably an ancient Mazer Bowl. [20]

Wood points out that there is no record of the cup in any will or inventory of the Stedman or Powell families. [21]

The cup received wider attention over the following two decades. In 1890 the *North Wales Chronicle* newspaper mentioned the cup on its *Notices* page, reproducing the same details that had been reported in *Archaeologia Cambrensis* in 1878. [22] By 1895 more details had been added to the cup's legend, and the *Western Mail* reported:

The cup is of wood, traditionally supposed to have been formed from a piece of the true Cross. Who made it is not known, or how it came into the possession of the ancient family of Nanteos - the Powells. Its healing virtues in certain cases of female disorder were in great repute, and when all hopes from doctors had been given up the sufferer had only to take all nourishment, wet and dry, out of it for a few days to ensure a complete cure.^[2]

The introduction of a connection with "certain cases of female disorder" coincided with the introduction of sexualized imagery in Wagner's *Parsifal*, which for the first time associated the Holy Grail directly with the womb and female fertility. ^[23] The revival of interest in the Arthurian legends and the Grail had been bolstered by the Victorian poet Alfred, Lord Tennyson who retold the legends in the *Idylls of the King*, published between 1856 and 1885. This was followed by J. M. Dent's illustrated edition of Sir Thomas Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*, issued in 12 parts between 1893 and 1894.

2.3 Association with the Holy Grail

2.3.1 Sought and Found: A story of the Holy Grail

By 1901 George Eyre Evans, a local historian and antiquarian, had become concerned about the preservation of the ruins at Strata Florida. He set out to promote and "raise the public profile" of the site and organised a number of tours.

2.4. IN CULTURE 7

In the summer of 1901 Evans led a guided tour of Strata Florida for the Chautauqua movement's summer assembly "where he spoke enchantingly on the rise, glory and fall of the abbey." He then arranged for the Chautauquans to visit Nanteos "to see the celebrated wooden healing cup." Ethelwyn Mary Amery, a member of the Chautauqua movement, subsequently declared the cup to be the Holy Grail and published a pamphlet announcing this, *Sought and Found: A story of the Holy Grail*, in 1905. In it she relates the story of the cup's origins, allegedly as told to her by her "hostess" at Nanteos (who at this time would have been either a very elderly Anna Maria Powell, wife of William Powell, or her daughter-in-law Margaret Powell^[25]):

Many years ago, when Henry VIII was destroying the Monasteries, his servants came into Wales, and, hearing of an ancient Monastery among the hills, where only seven old monks remained to guard their treasure, determined to destroy the Abbey and seize their goods. But the monks were warned by friendly neighbours, and fled by night, bearing their treasure with them. Their journey was long and dangerous for such old men, but they reached the House of Nant-Eos in safety, and deposited the treasure they had suffered so much to save. One by one the old monks died, and when the last one was at the point of death he entrusted the treasure to the owner of the house that had sheltered them, until the Church should once more claim its own. But the Church has not yet claimed it, and it is that treasure of the monks which you now see. [26]

Wood reports a variation of this story in which the cup is taken by seven monks from Glastonbury to Strata Florida during the Dissolution and entrusted by the last survivor to the Stedman family. The Stedman family, however, originated from Staffordshire and "cannot be associated with the area before the seventeenth century." [11] Similarly, the first Powell to live at Nanteos was William Powell (1658-1738) in 1705. [15] The Dissolution of the Monasteries by Henry VIII had taken place between 1536 and 1541, over a century before the establishment of the Nanteos estate by Colonel John Jones, a Royalist during the English Civil War and High Sheriff of Cardiganshire for 1665. Strata Florida was dissolved in February 1539 and the site and most of its estates were passed to Sir Richard Devereux and his father Walter Devereux, 1st Viscount Hereford. [27] Medieval records do not record that Strata Florida ever held a cup or bowl as a relic or that it was previously connected with Glastonbury, but both these elements became part of the Nanteos Cup legend. [28]

Barber states that "the story of the flight from Glastonbury seems to have been deliberately invented using antiquarian accounts of the dissolution of the monasteries." Noting that "no historical evidence has ever been offered for the story" he also asserts that the "reputation" of the cup grew simply "by being repeatedly asserted." Jenkins said that Amery had been "doubtless inspired by... [George Eyre] Evans's zeal" during her visit to Nanteos, that Evans' "enthusiasm for such unique objects 'had never been known to evaporate'" and that he "clearly delighted in publicizing the remarkable properties and historical significance of the healing cup... and its association with Strata Florida." [24]

In the years following the publication of *Sought and Found* Evans "increasingly wielded a powerful influence over developments at Strata Florida" and the cup and its association with the Grail played an important part in generating the public interest necessary to ensure the remains of the abbey were "properly preserved and excavated more intensively."^[24] On 23 June 1909 Evans held an event at Strata Florida advertised as "A Day at the Abbey ('The Westminster of Wales')", which was attended by 350 people despite heavy rain. The event consisted largely of "lengthy addresses" by Rev. J. Francis Lloyd, Evans and Edmund Tyrrell Green but the main attraction was the cup. Jenkins reports:

[T]he mood lightened considerably when the legendary Nanteos cup worked its magic once more. Evans had persuaded the Powell family of Nanteos to exhibit the Cup at the event and, to great astonishment and delight, when it was removed from its case and laid on a table in full public view a brilliant ray of sunshine broke through the clouds and the rain stopped.^[24]

2.4 In culture

Gerald Morgan describes a claim made in the 1960s guide to the Nanteos Mansion that German composer Richard Wagner stayed at Nanteos and was said to have been intrigued by the legend, which eventually inspired him to compose the Grail opera *Parsifal*.^[29] However, although the artistic dilettante George Powell probably met Wagner, there is no record of him visiting Nanteos.

The cup was included in a documentary broadcast on Channel 5 "The Search for the Holy Grail: The True Story". In the programme they concluded that the wood the cup is made from dates from at least 1400 years after the crucifixion.

The Commissioner for Monuments in Wales examined the piece and said it was exactly the right size and shape to be a mazer bowl, a type of medieval vessel, that it was wych elm and was from the 14th century. Similarly, in a 1998 BBC/TLC/Time-Life Television documentary Juliette Wood of the Folklore Society confirmed that the cup was a wych elm mazer or food bowl, and not made of olive wood.^[30] For a BBC4 documentary *The Making of King Arthur*, Simon Armitage interviewed the cup's current owner, Fiona Mirylees, and examined the cup.^[31]

In July 2014 the cup became the object of renewed media interest after it was reported stolen from a house in Weston under Penyard, Herefordshire. The cup had been loaned to "a seriously ill woman with connections to the family" that owned it, and was believed to have been stolen while the woman was in hospital. A spokeswoman for West Mercia Police said: "I don't want to say we are hunting the Holy Grail, but police are investigating the burglary." Following intelligence that the cup had been sighted in the pub, police raided the Crown Inn at Lea, Herefordshire. The only item found that vaguely resembled the Nanteos Cup was a salad bowl. [32]

2.5 References

Notes

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- [14] Brewer & Taylor 1983, p. 150.
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- [16] "Report of the Lampeter Meeting". Archaeologia Cambrensis 9. London: J. Parker. 1878. pp. 336–337.
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- [19] Wood 2008, p. 62.
- [20] Evans, John Thomas (1914). The Church Plate of Cardiganshire. Stow-on-the-Wold: James H. Alden. p. 94.
- [21] Wood 2008, p. 60.

2.6. SEE ALSO 9

- [22] "A singular remnant of medieval usage". North Wales Chronicle (3271.) (Bangor). 16 August 1890.
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2.6 See also

- Cornucopia (mythical vessels with magical powers)
- Mythological objects (list)
- Relics associated with Jesus

2.7 External links

- "Holy Grail & Hauntings". *BBC Wales*. 24 November 2005. Archived from the original on 22 October 2010. Retrieved 8 August 2014.
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CHAPTER 2. NANTEOS CUP

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The Damsel of the Sanct Grael or Holy Grail (1874) by Dante Gabriel Rossetti. Arthurian legend and the stories of the Holy Grail were a major source of inspiration for the Pre-Raphaelite movement of George Powell and his associates at Oxford.

Chapter 3

Óðrerir

This article is about possible interpretations of the term "Óðrerir" in Norse mythology. For the specific interpretation in which it refers to a wisdom-giving beverage, see mead of poetry.

In Norse mythology, Óðrerir, Óðrørir or Óðrærir refers either to one of the vessels that contain the mead of poetry (along with **Boðn** and **Són**) or to the mead itself.

3.1 Attestations

3.1.1 Poetic Edda

Óðrerir is mentioned in two ambiguous passages of the *Hávamál*. In a first stanza (107), it is sometimes assumed that Óðrerir is synonymous with mead of poetry, [1] but both interpretations are possible.

Of a well-assumed form
I made good use:
few things fail the wise;
for Odhrærir
is now come up
to men's earthly dwellings

—Hávamál (108), Thorpe's translation

In another stanza (140), the meaning of Óðrerir depends on the translation.

In most translations, Óðrerir seems to refer to a vessel, but other interpretations of *ausinn Óðreri* are possible, [2] which can lead to understand Óðrerir to be the mead itself.

3.1.2 Prose Edda

For Snorri Sturluson, Óðrerir is the name of the kettle in which Kvasir's blood was mixed with honey to create the mead:

[Kvasir] went up and down the earth to give instruction to men; and when he came upon invitation to the abode of certain dwarves, Fjalar and Galarr, they called him into privy converse with them, and killed him, letting his blood run into two vats and a kettle. The kettle is named Ódrerir, and the vats Són and Bodn; they blended honey with the blood, and the outcome was that mead by the virtue of which he who drinks becomes a skald or scholar.

-Skáldskaparmál (V), Brodeur's translation

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Similarly, Snorri considers that "liquid of Óðrerir and Boðn and Són" (*lögr Óðreris ok Boðnar ok Sónar*) is a *kenning* for the mead of poetry (*Skáldskaparmál*, 3).

But in skaldic poetry, Óðrerir is a synonym of mead of poetry^[1] and it is therefore assumed that Óðrerir as a vessel is Snorri's invention. Moreover, the etymology of the name – which can be rendered into "stirrer of inspiration" or "stirrer of fury" – suggests that it rather refers to the mead. Boðn probably means "vessel"^[1] and Són signifies either "reconciliation"^[3] or "blood".^[4]

3.2 Notes

- [1] Simek 1996.
- [2] Lindow 2002.
- [3] An allusion to the truce concluded by the gods after the Æsir-Vanir War.
- [4] Faulkes 1998.

3.3 References

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Chapter 4

Ankh

For the book of H. G. Wells, see Crux Ansata. For other uses, see Ankh (disambiguation).

The ankh (/ˈæŋk/ or /ˈɑːŋk/; Egyptian: IPA: [ʕaːnax]; U+2625 ♀ or U+132F9 ②), also known as **breath of life**, **the key of the Nile** or *crux ansata* (Latin meaning "cross with a handle"), was the ancient Egyptian hieroglyphic character that read "life", a triliteral sign for the consonants -n-ḥ.

It represents the concept of eternal life, which is the general meaning of the symbol. ^[1] The Egyptian gods are often portrayed carrying it by its loop, or bearing one in each hand, arms crossed over their chest. The ankh appears in hand or in proximity of almost every deity in the Egyptian pantheon (including Pharaohs). Thus it is fairly and widely understood as a symbol of early religious pluralism: all sects believed in a common story of eternal life, and this is the literal meaning of the symbol. This rationale contributed to the adoption of the ankh by New Age mysticism in the 1960s, to mean essentially the same tolerance of diversity of belief and common ethics as in Ancient Egypt.

4.1 Origin

The origin of the symbol remains a mystery to Egyptologists, and no single hypothesis has been widely accepted. One of the earliest suggestions is that of Thomas Inman, first published in 1869:

It is by Egyptologists called the symbol of life. It is also called the "handled cross", or *crux ansata*. It represents the male triad and the female unit, under a decent form. There are few symbols more commonly met with in Egyptian art. In some sculptures, where the sun's rays are represented as terminating in hands, the offerings which these bring are many a *crux ansata*, emblematic of the truth that a fruitful union is a gift from the deity.^[3]

E. A. Wallis Budge postulated that the symbol originated as the belt buckle of the mother goddess Isis, [4] an idea joined by Wolfhart Westendorf with the notion that both the ankh and the knot of Isis were used in many ceremonies. Sir Alan Gardiner speculated that it depicts a sandal strap, which is also written with the ankh hieroglyph. [5]

In their 2004 book *The Quick and the Dead*, ^[6] Andrew Hunt Gordon and Calvin W. Schwabe speculated that the ankh, djed, and was symbols have a biological basis derived from ancient cattle culture (linked to the Egyptian belief that semen was created in the spine), thus:

- the ankh, symbol of life, thoracic vertebra of a bull (seen in cross section)
- the djed, symbol of stability, base on sacrum of a bull's spine
- the was, symbol of power and dominion, a staff featuring the head and tail of the god Set, "great of strength"

4.2 History

The ankh appears frequently in Egyptian tomb paintings and other art, often at the fingertips of a god or goddess in images that represent the deities of the afterlife conferring the gift of life on the dead person's mummy; this is

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thought to symbolize the act of conception. Additionally, an ankh was often carried by Egyptians as an amulet, either alone, or in connection with two other hieroglyphs that mean "strength" and "health" (see explication of djed and was, above). Mirrors of beaten metal were also often made in the shape of an ankh, either for decorative reasons or to symbolize a perceived view into another world.

A symbol similar to the ankh appears frequently in Minoan and Mycenaean sites. This is a combination of the *sacral knot* (symbol of holiness) with the *double-edged axe* (symbol of matriarchy)^[7] but it can be better compared with the Egyptian *tyet* which is similar. This symbol can be recognized on the two famous figurines of the chthonian Snake Goddess discovered in the palace of Knossos. Both snake goddesses have a knot with a projecting loop cord between their breasts.^[8] In the Linear B (Mycenean Greek) script, ankh is the phonetic sign *za*.^[9]

The ankh also appeared frequently in coins from ancient Cyprus and Asia Minor (particularly the city of Mallus in Cilicia). In some cases, especially with the early coinage of King Euelthon of Salamis, the letter ku, from the Cypriot syllabary, appeared within the circle ankh, representing Ku(prion) (Cypriots). To this day, the ankh is also used to represent the planet Venus (the namesake of which, the goddess Venus or Aphrodite, was chiefly worshipped on the island) and the metal copper (the heavy mining of which gave Cyprus its name). [11]

David P. Silverman notes how the depiction of the ancient Egyptian ankh was preserved by the Copts in their representation of the Christian cross, the coptic cross, [12][13]

4.3 References

4.3.1 Notes

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- [3] Inman, Thomas. Ancient Pagan and Modern Christian Symbolism, Second Edition. New York: J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway. Published 1875. Page 44. ISBN 978-1-4209-2987-4.
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- [11] Fisher, Fred H., Cyprus: Our New Colony And What We Know About It, London: George Routledge and Sons 1878, pp. 13–14.
- [12] "Egyptian Religion", David P. Silverman, p. 135, Oxford University Press US, 2003, ISBN 0-19-521952-X
- [13] "Ankh Ancient Symbol of Life". Retrieved 4 November 2012.

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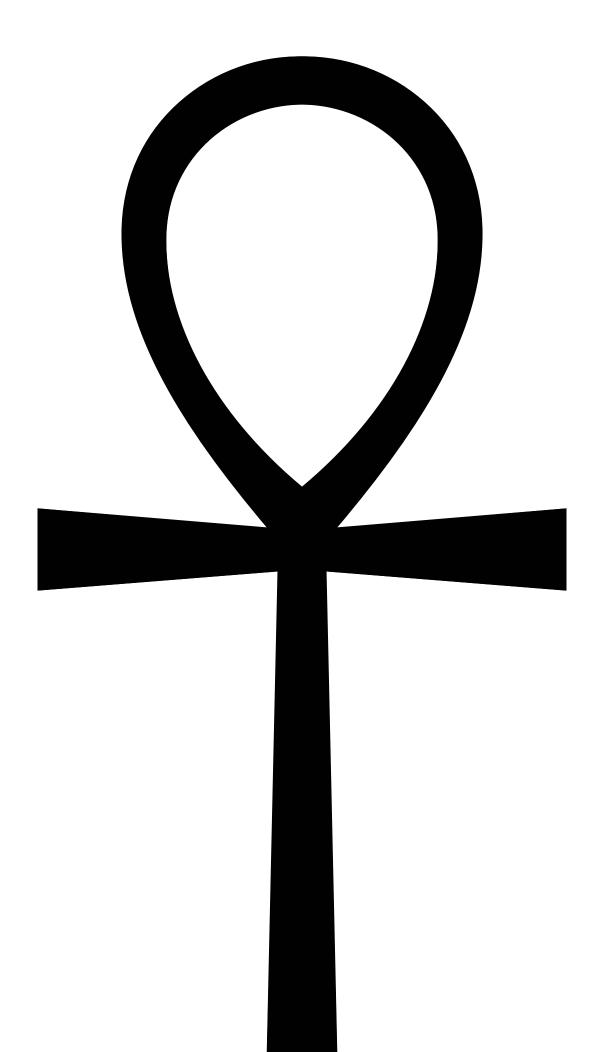
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4.4. EXTERNAL LINKS

4.4 External links

• Media related to Ankh at Wikimedia Commons

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4.4. EXTERNAL LINKS



Merenptah offering an ankh, djed, and was to Ptah

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An ankh-shaped mirror case

4.4. EXTERNAL LINKS



 ${\it The~ankh,~during~the~reign~of~Hatshepsut~(1508-1458~BC),~from~the~Royal~Ontario~Museum}$

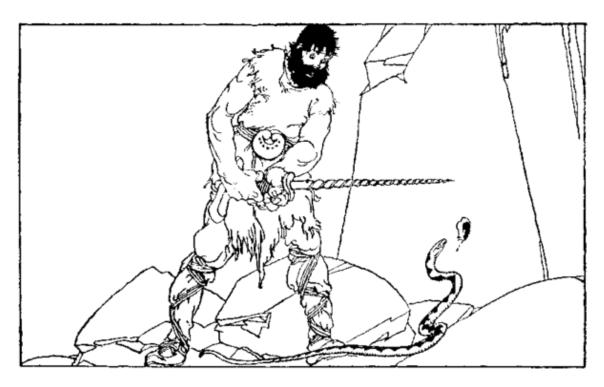
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Crux ansata in Codex Glazier

Chapter 5

Rati (Norse mythology)



"Odin wins for men the magic mead" by Willy Pogany. The jötunn Baugi holding the auger while Odin is on his way into the hole.

In Norse mythology, **Rati** is the name of a drill or auger that was used by Odin during his quest to obtain the mead of poetry from the giant Suttung with the help of Suttung's brother Baugi. According to the *Skáldskaparmál* section of the *Prose Edda*, Odin instructed Baugi to bore a hole with the auger through the mountain Hnitbjorg where the mead was kept. When Baugi told him that the hole had been drilled, Odin blew into the hole and the stone bits blew back at him. In this way he realized that Baugi had not drilled all the way through and was trying to trick him. Odin told him to drill a second time, and this time when he blew into the hole the bits flew inward. Odin then transformed himself into a snake, and when he slithered into the hole Baugi tried to stab him with the auger but missed him. In this manner Odin gained access to the mead.

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Chapter 6

Gjallarhorn

For band, see Gjallarhorn (band).

In Norse mythology, **Gjallarhorn** (Old Norse "yelling horn"^[1] or "the loud sounding horn"^[2]) is a horn associated with the god Heimdallr and the wise being Mímir. Gjallarhorn is attested in the *Poetic Edda*, compiled in the 13th century from earlier traditional material, and the *Prose Edda*, written in the 13th century by Snorri Sturluson.

6.1 Attestations

Giallarhorn is attested once by name in the *Poetic Edda* while it receives three mentions in the *Prose Edda*:

6.1.1 Poetic Edda

The single mention of Gjallarhorn by name occurs in the *Poetic Edda* poem *Völuspá*, wherein a völva foresees the events of Ragnarök and the role in which Heimdallr and Gjallarhorn will play at its onset; Heimdallr will raise his horn and blow loudly. Due to manuscript differences, translations of the stanza vary:

Regarding this stanza, scholar Andy Orchard comments that the name *Gjallarhorn* may here mean "horn of the river Gjöll" as "Gjöll is the name of one of the rivers of the Underworld, whence much wisdom is held to derive", but notes that in the poem *Grímnismál*, Heimdallr is said to drink fine mead in his heavenly home Himinbjörg.^[1]

Earlier in the same poem, the völva mentions a scenario involving the hearing or horn (depending on translation of the Old Norse noun *hljóð*—bolded below for the purpose of illustration) of the god Heimdallr:

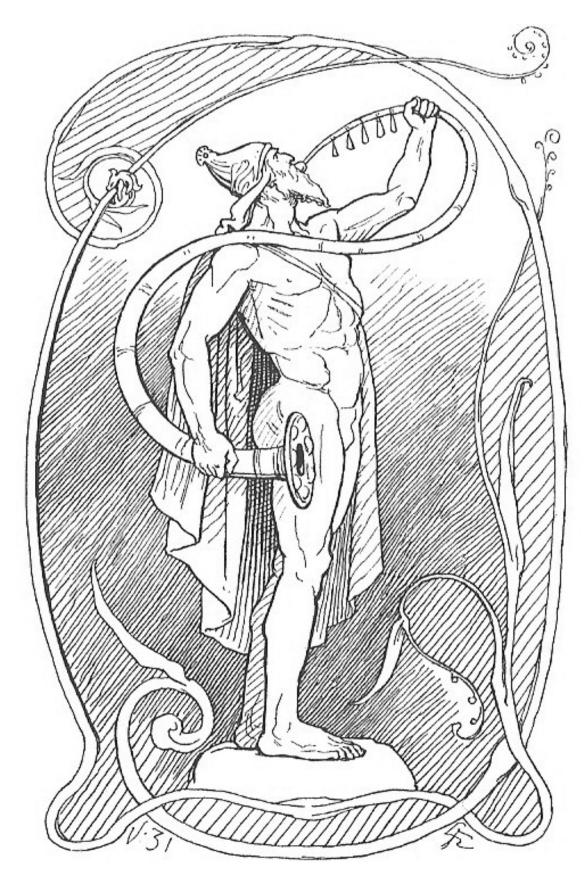
Scholar Paul Schach comments that the stanzas in this section of Voluspa are "all very mysterious and obscure, as it was perhaps meant to be". Schach details that " $Heimdallar\ hlj\acuteo\eth$ has aroused much speculation. Snorri seems to have confused this word with gjallarhorn, but there is otherwise no attestation of the use of $hlj\acuteo\eth$ in the sense of 'horn' in Icelandic. Various scholars have read this as "hearing" rather than "horn". [8]

Scholar Carolyne Larrington comments that if "hearing" rather than "horn" is understood to appear in this stanza, the stanza indicates that Heimdall, like Odin, has left a body part in the well; his ear. Larrington says that "Odin exchanged one of his eyes for wisdom from Mimir, guardian of the well, while Heimdall seems to have forfeited his ear."^[9]

6.1.2 Prose Edda

In the *Prose Edda*, Gjallarhorn is mentioned thrice, and all three mentions occur in *Gylfaginning*. In chapter 14, the enthroned figure Just-As-High tells the disguised Gangleri about the cosmological tree Yggdrasil. Just-As-High says that one of the three roots of Yggdrasil reaches to the well Mímisbrunnr, which belongs to Mímir, and contains much wisdom and intelligence. Using Gjallarhorn, Heimdallr drinks from the well and thus is himself wise. [10]

6.1. ATTESTATIONS 23

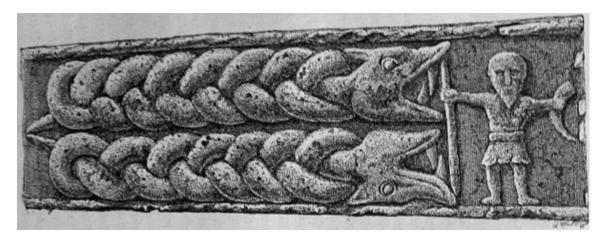


Heimdallr blows into Gjallarhorn in an 1895 illustration by Lorenz Frølich

In chapter 25 of *Gylfaginning*, High tells Gangleri about Heimdallr. High mentions that Heimdallr is the owner of the "trumpet" (see footnote) Gjallarhorn and that "its blast can be heard in all worlds". [11] In chapter 51, High foretells the

events of Ragnarök. After the enemies of the gods will gather at the plain Vígríðr, Heimdallr will stand and mightily blow into Gjallarhorn. The gods will awake and assemble together at the thing.^[12]

6.2 Archaeological record



The Gosforth Cross panel often held to depict Heimdallr with Gjallarhorn

A figure holding a large horn to his lips and clasping a sword on his hip appears on a stone cross from the Isle of Man. Some scholars have theorized that this figure is a depiction of Heimdallr with Gjallarhorn.^[13]

A 9th or 10th century Gosforth Cross in Cumbria, England depicts a figure holding a horn and a sword standing defiantly before two open-mouthed beasts. This figure has been oft theorized as depicting Heimdallr with Gjallarhorn. [14]

6.3 Theories and interpretations



Detail of a copy of one of the two Golden Horns of Gallehus

Scholar Rudolf Simek comments that the use of a horn as both a musical instrument and a drinking vessel is not particularly odd, and that the concept is also employed with tales of the legendary Old French hero Roland's horn, Olifant. Simek notes that the horn is among the most ancient of Germanic musical instruments, along with lurs, and, citing archaeological finds (such as the 5th century Golden Horns of Gallehus from Denmark), comments that there appears to have been sacral horns kept purely for religious purposes among the Germanic peoples, understood as earthly versions of Heimdallr's Gjallarhorn, reaching back to the early Germanic Iron Age.^[15]

6.4 In popular culture

Since 2007, a Gjallarhorn has been used to announce the arrival of the Minnesota Vikings on the field at their home games. The honor of sounding this Gjallarhorn is traditionally given to famous Minnesota athletes and other state celebrities.

In Square-Enix's Final Fantasy XI, the Gjallarhorn was the Bard's Relic Weapon and one of the best items in the game.

In Bungie's Destiny, the Gjallarhorn makes an appearance as an exotic rocket launcher.

In CCP's EVE Online, the Gjallarhorn appears as a doomsday weapon used primarily on the Minmatar Titan.

The 43rd episode of *Legend of the Galactic Heroes*, which chronicles the beginnings of Operation Ragnarök, is named "The Sounding of Gjallarhorn."

6.5 See also

• The Snoldelev Stone, a 9th-century runestone featuring a unique three-horned symbol

6.6 Notes

- [1] Orchard (1997:57).
- [2] Simek (2007:110).
- [3] Thorpe (1866:9).
- [4] Bellows (1923:20). See connected footnote for information on manuscript and editing variations.
- [5] Thorpe (1866:7).
- [6] Bellows (1932:12).
- [7] Larrington (1999:7).
- [8] Schach (1985:93).
- [9] Larrington (1999:265).
- [10] Faulkes (1995:17).
- [11] Faulkes (1995:25). Lindow (2002:143) comments that the Old Norse term employed for the instrument refers to "a long brass instrument that would answer today to an unvalved trumpet".
- [12] Faulkes (1995:54).
- [13] Lindow (2002:168).
- [14] Bailey (1996:86-90).
- [15] Simek (2007:110—111).

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Chapter 7

Benben



Reconstructed capstone from one of the pyramids of the Giza Plateau, symbolizing Benben.

In Egyptian mythology, specifically in the Heliopolitan tradition, **Benben**, was the mound that arose from the primordial waters, Nu, and on which the creator god Atum settled. The Benben stone is the top stone of the Egyptian pyramid. It is also related to the obelisk.

7.1 Primeval mound

In the Pyramid Texts, e.g. Utterances 587 and 600, Atum himself is at times referred to as "mound". It was said to have turned into a small pyramid, located in Annu, within which Atum was said to dwell. Other cities developed their own myths of the primeval mound. At Memphis the god Tatenen, an earth god and the origin of *all things in the shape of food and viands, divine offers, all good things* was the personification of the primeval mound.

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Benben stone from the Pyramid of Amenemhat III, 12th Dynasty. Egyptian museum, Cairo.

7.2 Benben stone

The Benben stone, named after the mound, was a sacred stone in the temple of Ra at Heliopolis. It was the location on which the first rays of the sun fell. It is thought to have been the prototype for later obelisks, and the capstones of the great pyramids were based on its design. The capstone or the tip of the pyramid is also called pyramidion. In ancient Egypt, these were probably gilded, so they shone in sunlight.

The pyramidion is also called 'Benben stone'. Many such Benben stones, often carved with images and inscriptions, are found in museums around the world.

The phoenix, the bennu bird, was venerated at Heliopolis, where it was said to be living on the Benben or on the holy willow.

According to Barry Kemp the connection between the benben, the phoenix, and the sun may well have been based on alliteration: the rising, *weben*, of the sun sending its rays towards the benben, on which the benu bird lives. Utterance 600, § 1652 of the Pyramid Texts speaks of Atum as *you rose up, as the benben, in the Mansion of the Benu in Heliopolis.*^[1]

7.2.1 Historical development

From the earliest times, the portrayal of Benben was stylised in two ways; the first was as a pointed, pyramidal form, which was probably the model for pyramids and obelisks. The other form was round-topped; this was probably the origin of Benben as a free standing votive object, and an object of veneration. [2]

During the 5th Dynasty, the portrayal of benben was formalized as a squat obelisk. Later, during the Middle Kingdom, this became a long, thin obelisk.

In the Amarna period tomb of Panehesy, the benben is seen as a large, round-topped stela standing on a raised platform.^[3]

7.3. SEE ALSO 29



Bennu bird from an Egyptian papyrus.

7.3 See also

- Baetylus
- Ancient Egyptian creation myths
- Egyptian sun temple

7.4 References

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- [2] Corinna Rossi, Architecture and Mathematics in Ancient Egypt. Cambridge University Press, 2004. p 182 ISBN 1107320518
- [3] Joyce Tyldesley, The Penguin Book of Myths and Legends of Ancient Egypt. Penguin UK, 2010 ISBN 014196376X

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- George Hart Egyptian Myths, University of Texas Press 1990, pp. 11, 12, 16

Chapter 8

Golden Fleece

For other uses, see Golden Fleece (disambiguation).

In Greek mythology, the **Golden Fleece** (Greek: χρυσόμαλλον δέρας *chrysómallon déras*) is the fleece of the gold-hair^[1] winged ram, which was held in Colchis.^[2] The fleece is a symbol of authority and kingship. It figures in the tale of the hero Jason and his band of Argonauts, who set out on a quest for the fleece by order of King Pelias, in order to place Jason rightfully on the throne of Iolcus in Thessaly. Through the help of Medea, they acquire the Golden Fleece. The story is of great antiquity and was current in the time of Homer (eighth century BC). It survives in various forms, among which the details vary.

8.1 Plot

Athamas the Minyan, a founder of Halos in Thessaly^[3] but also king of the city of Orchomenus in Boeotia (a region of southeastern Greece), took as his first wife the cloud goddess Nephele. They had two children, the boy Phrixus (whose name means "curly"—as in ram's fleece) and the girl Helle. Later Athamas became enamored of and married Ino, the daughter of Cadmus. When Nephele left in anger, drought came upon the land.

Ino was jealous of her stepchildren and plotted their deaths: in some versions, she persuaded Athamas that sacrificing Phrixus was the only way to end the drought. Nephele, or her spirit, appeared to the children with a winged ram whose fleece was of gold.^[4] The ram had been sired by Poseidon in his primitive ram-form upon Theophane, a nymph^[5] and the granddaughter of Helios, the sun-god. According to Hyginus,^[6] Poseidon carried Theophane to an island where he made her into an ewe, so that he could have his way with her among the flocks. There Theophane's other suitors could not distinguish the ram-god and his consort.^[7]

Nepheles' children escaped on the winged ram over the sea, but Helle fell off and drowned in the strait now named after her, the Hellespont. The ram spoke to Phrixus, encouraging him, [8] and took the boy safely to Colchis (modern-day Georgia), on the easternmost shore of the Euxine (Black) Sea.

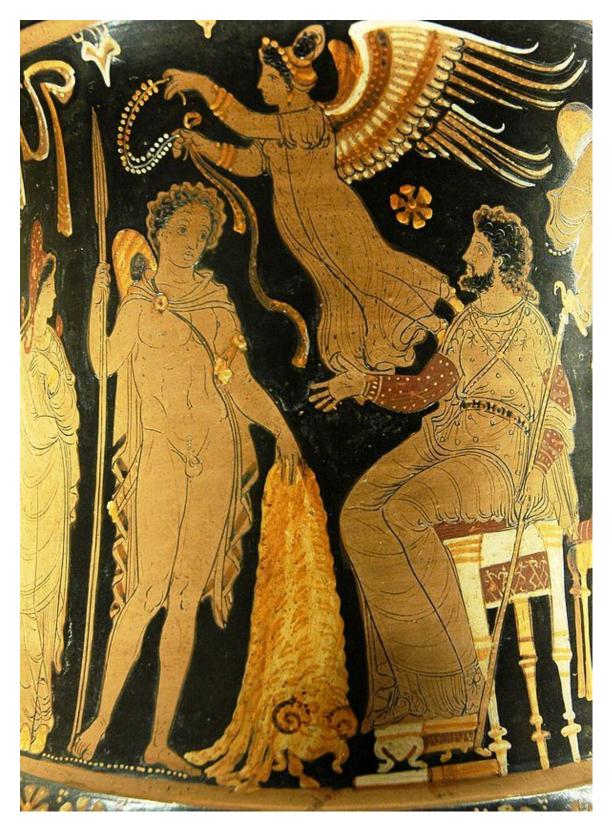
There Phrixus sacrificed the winged ram to Poseidon, essentially returning him to the god. [9] The ram became the constellation Aries.

Phrixus settled in the house of Aeetes, son of Helios the sun god. He hung the Golden Fleece reserved from the sacrifice of the ram on an oak in a grove sacred to Ares, the god of war and one of the Twelve Olympians. The golden fleece was defended by bulls with hoofs of brass and breath of fire. It was also guarded by a never sleeping dragon with teeth which could become human soldiers when planted in the ground. The dragon was at the foot of the tree on which the fleece was placed. [10]

8.2 Evolution of plot

Pindar employed the quest for the Golden Fleece in his Fourth Pythian Ode (written in 462 BC), though the fleece is not in the foreground. When Aeetes challenges Jason to yoke the fire-breathing bulls, the fleece is the prize: "Let the King do this, the captain of the ship! Let him do this, I say, and have for his own the immortal coverlet, the fleece, glowing with matted skeins of gold". [11]

8.2. EVOLUTION OF PLOT 31



Jason returns with the Golden Fleece, shown on an Apulian red-figure calyx krater, ca. 340–330 BC

In later versions of the story, the ram is said to have been the offspring of the sea god Poseidon and Themisto (less often, Nephele or Theophane). The classic telling is the *Argonautica* of Apollonius of Rhodes, composed in mid-third century BC Alexandria, recasting early sources that have not survived. Another, much less-known Argonautica, using the same body of myth, was composed in Latin by Valerius Flaccus during the time of Vespasian.

Where the written sources fail, through accidents of history, sometimes the continuity of a mythic tradition can be found among the vase-painters. The story of the Golden Fleece appeared to have little resonance for Athenians of the Classic age, for only two representations of it on Attic-painted wares of the fifth century have been identified: a *krater* at the Metropolitan Museum of Art and a *kylix* in the Vatican collections. ^[12] In the *kylix* painted by Douris, ca 480-470, Jason is being disgorged from the mouth of the dragon, a detail that does not fit easily into the literary sources; behind the dragon, the fleece hangs from an apple tree. Jason's helper in the Athenian vase-paintings is not Medea— who had a history in Athens as the opponent of Theseus— but Athena.

8.3 Interpretations

The very early origin of the myth in preliterate times means that during the more than a millennium when it was to some degree part of the fabric of culture, its perceived significance likely passed through numerous developments.

Several euhemeristic attempts to interpret the Golden Fleece "realistically" as reflecting some physical cultural object or alleged historical practice have been made. For example, in the 20th century, some scholars suggested that the story of the Golden Fleece signified the bringing of sheep husbandry to Greece from the east;^[13] in other readings, scholars theorized it referred to golden grain,^[14] or to the sun.^[15]



A sluice box used in placer mining.

A more widespread interpretation relates the myth of the fleece to a method of washing gold from streams, which was well attested (but only from c. 5th century BCE) in the region of Georgia to the east of the Black Sea. Sheep fleeces, sometimes stretched over a wood frame, would be submerged in the stream, and gold flecks borne down from upstream placer deposits would collect in them. The fleeces would be hung in trees to dry before the gold was shaken or combed out. Alternatively, the fleeces would be used on washing tables in alluvial mining of gold or on washing tables at deep gold mines.^[16] Judging by the very early gold objects from a range of cultures, washing for gold is a very old human activity.

Strabo describes the way in which gold could be washed:

"It is said that in their country gold is carried down by the mountain torrents, and that the barbarians obtain it by means of perforated troughs and fleecy skins, and that this is the origin of the myth of the

8.3. INTERPRETATIONS 33

golden fleece—unless they call them Iberians, by the same name as the western Iberians, from the gold mines in both countries."

Another interpretation is based on the references in some versions to purple or purple-dyed cloth. The purple dye extracted from snails of the Murex and related species was highly prized in ancient times. Clothing made of cloth dyed with Tyrian purple was a mark of great wealth and high station (hence the phrase "royal purple"). The association of gold with purple is natural and occurs frequently in literature. [17]

8.3.1 Main theories



The Douris cup, depicting Jason being regurgitated by the dragon protecting the fleece

The following are the chief among the various interpretations of the fleece, with notes on sources and major critical discussions:

1. It represents royal power.

(a) Marcus Porcius Cato and Marcus Terentius Varro, Roman Farm Management, The Treatises of Cato and Varro, in English, with Notes of Modern Instances^[18]

- (b) Braund, David (1994), Georgia In Antiquity, Oxford: Clarendon Press, pp. 21–23
- (c) Popko, M. (1974) "Kult Swietego runa w hetyckiej Anatolii" ["The Cult of the Golden Fleece in Hittite Anatolia"], *Preglad Orientalistyczuy* 91, pp. 225–30 [In Russian]
- (d) Newman, John Kevin (2001) "The Golden Fleece. Imperial Dream" (Theodore Papanghelis and Antonios Rengakos (eds.). *A Companion to Apollonius Rhodius*. Leiden: Brill (*Mnemosyne Supplement* 217), 309-40)
- (e) Otar Lordkipanidze (2001), "The Golden Fleece: Myth, Euhemeristic Explanation and Archaeology", *Oxford Journal of Archaeology* 20, pp. 1–38^[19]
- 2. It represents the flayed skin of Krios ('Ram'), companion of Phrixus.
 - (a) Diodorus Siculus 4. 47; cf. scholia on Apollonius Rhodius 2. 1144; 4. 119, citing Dionysus' Argonautica
- 3. It represents a book on alchemy.
 - (a) Palaephatus (fourth century BC) 'On the Incredible' (Festa, N. (ed.) (1902) *Mythographi Graeca* III, 2, Lipsiae, p. 89
 - (b) John of Antioch fr.15.3 FHG (5.548)
- 4. It represents a technique of writing in gold on parchment.
 - (a) Haraxes of Pergamum (c. first to sixth century) (Jacoby, F. (1923) *Die Fragmente der griechischen Historiker* I (Berlin), IIA, 490, fr. 37)
- 5. It represents a form of placer mining practiced in Georgia, for example.
 - (a) Strabo (first century BC) Geography I, 2, 39 (Jones, H.L. (ed.) (1969) The Geography of Strabo (in eight volumes) London^[20]
 - (b) Tran, T (1992) "The Hydrometallurgy of Gold Processing", *Interdisciplinary Science Reviews (UK)*, 17, pp. 356–365
 - (c) "Gold During the Classical Period" [21]
 - (d) Shuker, Karl P. N. (1997), From Flying Toads To Snakes With Wings, LLewellyn
 - (e) Renault, Mary (2004), The Bull from the Sea, Arrow (Rand)
 - (f) refuted in: Braund, David (1994), op. cit., p. 24 and Otar Lordkipanidze (2001), op. cit.
- 6. It represents the forgiveness of God
 - (a) Müller, Karl Otfried (1844), Orchomenos und die Minyer, Breslau
 - (b) refuted in: Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), The Voyage of the Argonauts, London: Methuen, p. 64 ff, 163 ff
- 7. It represents a rain cloud.
 - (a) Forchhammer, P. W. (1857) Hellenica Berlin p. 205 ff, 330 ff
 - (b) refuted in: Janet Ruth Bacon|Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), op. cit.
- 8. It represents a land of golden grain.
 - (a) Faust, Adolf (1898), Einige deutsche und griechische Sagen im Lichte ihrer ursprünglichen Bedeutung. Mulhausen
 - (b) refuted in: Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), op. cit.
- 9. It represents the spring-hero.
 - (a) Schroder, R. (1899), Argonautensage und Verwandtes, Poznań
 - (b) refuted in: Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), op. cit.
- 10. It represents the sea reflecting the sun.
 - (a) Vurthiem, V (1902), "De Argonautarum Vellere aureo", *Mnemosyne*, New Series, XXX, pp. 54–67; XXXI, p. 116

8.4. SEE ALSO 35

- (b) Mannhardt, in Zeitschrift für Ethnologie, VII, p. 241 ff, 281 ff
- (c) refuted in: Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), op. cit.
- 11. It represents the gilded prow of Phrixus' ship.
 - (a) Svoronos, M. (1914), in Journal International d'Archéologie Numismatique, XVI, pp. 81–152
 - (b) refuted in: Bacon, Janet Ruth (1925), op. cit.
- 12. It represents a breed of sheep in ancient Georgia.
 - (a) Ninck, M. (1921), "Die Bedeutung des Wassers im Kult und Leben der Alten," *Philologus Suppl* 14.2, Leipzig
 - (b) Ryder, M.L. (1991) "The last word on the Golden Fleece legend?" *Oxford Journal of Archaeology* 10, pp. 57–60
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 - (a) Bailey, James R. (1973), *The God Kings and the Titans; The New World Ascendancy in Ancient Times*, St. Martin's Press
- 18. It represents trading fleece dyed murex-purple for Georgian gold.
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8.4 See also

- List of mythological objects
- Apsyrtus
- · Gold mining
- Order of the Golden Fleece
- The Sea of Monsters

8.5 References

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- [2] William Godwin (1876). "Lives of the Necromancers". p. 41.
- [3] Strabo, ix.5.8.
- [4] That the ram was sent by Zeus was the version heard by Pausanias in the second century CE (Pausanias, ix.34.5).
- [5] *Theophane* may equally be construed as "appearing as a goddess" or as "causing a god to appear" (Karl Kerenyi, *The Heroes of the Greeks*).
- [6] Hyginus, Fabulae, 163
- [7] Karl Kerenyi The Gods of the Greeks, (1951) 1980:182f
- [8] Upon the shield of Jason, as it was described in Apollonius' *Argonautica*, "was Phrixos the Minyan, depicted as though really listening to the ram, and the ram seemed to be speaking. As you looked on this pair, you would be struck dumb with amazement and deceived, for you would expect to hear some wise utterance from them, with this hope you would gaze long upon them." (Richard Hunter, tr. *Apollonius of Rhodes: Jason and the Golden Fleece*, (Oxford University Press) 1993:21)
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- [16] Interpretation #5
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8.6 External links

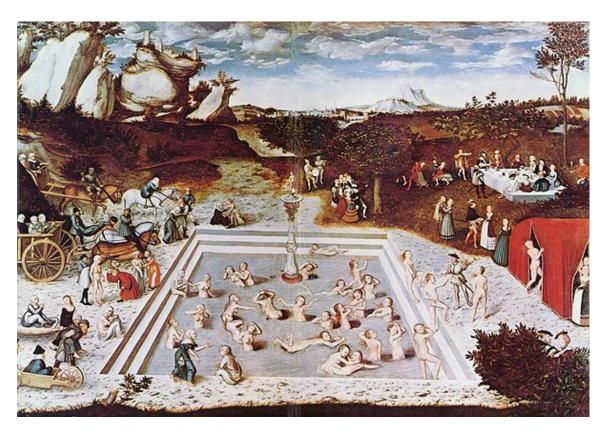
• The Project Gutenberg text of The Golden Fleece and the Heroes Who Lived Before Achilles

Chapter 9

Fountain of Youth

For other uses, see Fountain of Youth (disambiguation).

The Fountain of Youth is a spring that supposedly restores the youth of anyone who drinks or bathes in its wa-



The Fountain of Youth, 1546 painting by Lucas Cranach the Elder.

ters. Tales of such a fountain have been recounted across the world for thousands of years, appearing in writings by Herodotus (5th century BCE), the Alexander romance (3rd century CE), and the stories of Prester John (early Crusades, 11th/12th centuries CE). Stories of similar waters were also evidently prominent among the indigenous peoples of the Caribbean during the Age of Exploration (early 16th century), who spoke of the restorative powers of the water in the mythical land of Bimini.

The legend became particularly prominent in the 16th century, when it became attached to the Spanish explorer Juan Ponce de León, first Governor of Puerto Rico. According to an apocryphal combination of New World and Eurasian elements, Ponce de León was searching for the Fountain of Youth when he traveled to what is now Florida in 1513.

9.1 Early accounts

Herodotus mentions a fountain containing a special kind of water in the land of the Macrobians, which gives the Macrobians their exceptional longevity.

The Ichthyophagi then in their turn questioned the king concerning the term of life, and diet of his people, and were told that most of them lived to be a hundred and twenty years old, while some even went beyond that age- they ate boiled flesh, and had for their drink nothing but milk. When the Ichthyophagi showed wonder at the number of the years, he led them to a fountain, wherein when they had washed, they found their flesh all glossy and sleek, as if they had bathed in oil- and a scent came from the spring like that of violets. The water was so weak, they said, that nothing would float in it, neither wood, nor any lighter substance, but all went to the bottom. If the account of this fountain be true, it would be their constant use of the water from it which makes them so long-lived. [1]



Persian miniature depicting Khidr and Alexander watching the Water of Life revive a salted fish

A story of the "Water of Life" appears in the Eastern versions of the Alexander romance, which describes Alexander the Great and his servant crossing the Land of Darkness to find the restorative spring. The servant in that story is in turn derived from Middle Eastern legends of Al-Khidr, a sage who appears also in the Qur'an. Arabic and Aljamiado versions of the *Alexander Romance* were very popular in Spain during and after the period of Moorish rule, and would have been known to the explorers who journeyed to America. These earlier accounts inspired the popular medieval fantasy *The Travels of Sir John Mandeville*, which also mentions the Fountain of Youth as located at the foot of a mountain outside Polombe (modern Kollam^[2]) in India.^[3] Due to the influence of these tales, the Fountain of Youth legend was popular in courtly Gothic art, appearing for example on the ivory Casket with Scenes of Romances (Walters 71264) and several ivory mirror-cases, and remained popular through the European Age of Exploration.^[4]

9.2. BIMINI 39



French 14th-century ivory mirror case with a Fountain of Youth

European iconography is fairly consistent, as the Cranach painting and mirror-case from 200 years earlier demonstrate: old people, often carried, enter at left, strip, and enter a pool that is as large as space allows. The people in the pool are youthful and naked, and after a while they leave it, and are shown fashionably dressed enjoying a courtly party, sometimes including a meal.

There are countless indirect sources for the tale as well. Eternal youth is a gift frequently sought in myth and legend, and stories of things such as the philosopher's stone, universal panaceas, and the elixir of life are common throughout Eurasia and elsewhere. An additional hint may have been taken from the account of the Pool of Bethesda in the Gospel of John, in which Jesus heals a man at the pool in Jerusalem.

9.2 Bimini

Main article: Bimini § The Fountain of Youth

According to legend, the Spanish heard of Bimini from the Arawaks in Hispaniola, Cuba, and Puerto Rico. The Caribbean islanders described a mythical land of *Beimeni* or *Beniny* (whence Bimini), a land of wealth and prosperity,

which became conflated with the fountain legend. By the time of Ponce de Leon, the land was thought to be located northwest towards the Bahamas (called *la Vieja* during the Ponce expedition). The natives were probably referring to the Maya. [4] This land also became confused with the Boinca or Boyuca mentioned by Juan de Solis, although Solis's navigational data placed it in the Gulf of Honduras. It was this Boinca that originally held a legendary fountain of youth, rather than Bimini itself. [4] Sequene, an Arawak chief from Cuba, purportedly was unable to resist the lure of Bimini and its restorative fountain. He gathered a troupe of adventurers and sailed north, never to return.

Bimini and its curative waters were widespread subjects in the Caribbean. The Italian-born chronicler Peter Martyr told of them in a letter to the pope in 1513, though he did not believe the stories and was dismayed that so many others did.^[5]

9.3 Ponce De Leon

In the 16th century the story of the Fountain of Youth became attached to the biography of the conquistador Juan Ponce de León. As attested by his royal charter, Ponce de León was charged with discovering the land of *Beniny*. [4] Although the indigenous peoples were probably describing the land of the Maya in Yucatan, the name—and legends about Boinca's fountain of youth—became associated with the Bahamas instead. However, Ponce de León did not mention the fountain in any of his writings throughout the course of his expedition. [4] While he may well have heard of the Fountain and believed in it, his name was not associated with the legend in writing until after his death.

The connection was made in Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo's *Historia General y Natural de las Indias* of 1535, in which he wrote that Ponce de León was looking for the waters of Bimini to regain youthfulness. [6] Some researchers have suggested that Oviedo's account may have been politically inspired to generate favor in the courts. [4] A similar account appears in Francisco López de Gómara's *Historia General de las Indias* of 1551. [7] In the *Memoir* of Hernando D'Escalante Fontaneda in 1575, the author places the restorative waters in Florida and mentions de León looking for them there; his account influenced Antonio de Herrera y Tordesillas' history of the Spanish in the New World. [8] Fontaneda had spent seventeen years as an Indian captive after being shipwrecked in Florida as a boy. In his *Memoir* he tells of the curative waters of a lost river he calls "Jordan" and refers to de León looking for them. However, Fontaneda makes it clear he is skeptical about these stories he includes, and says he doubts de León was actually looking for the fabled stream when he came to Florida. [8]

Herreray makes that connection definite in the romanticized version of Fontaneda's story included in his *Historia* general de los hechos de los Castellanos en las islas y tierra firme del Mar Oceano. Herrera states that local caciques paid regular visits to the fountain. A frail old man could become so completely restored that he could resume "all manly exercises... take a new wife and beget more children." Herrera adds that the Spaniards had unsuccessfully searched every "river, brook, lagoon or pool" along the Florida coast for the legendary fountain. [9] It would appear the Sequene story is likewise based on a garbling of Fontaneda.

9.4 Fountain of Youth Archaeological Park

Main article: Fountain of Youth Archaeological Park

The city of St. Augustine, Florida is home to the Fountain of Youth Archaeological Park, a tribute to the spot where Ponce de León is traditionally said to have landed. Although there were several instances of the property being used as an attraction as early as the 1860s, the tourist attraction in its present form was created by Luella Day McConnell in 1904. Because she supposedly purchased the Park property from Mr. H.H. Williams using diamonds and cash, she was also known as "Diamond Lil". It is said that Dr. McConnell had a diamond mounted in her front tooth, but this may by a myth. Luella Day McConnell fabricated stories to amuse and appall the city's residents and tourists until her accidental death in a car accident in 1927. [10] The first archaeological digs at the Fountain of Youth in 1934 were performed by the Smithsonian Institution. These digs produced a large number of Christianized Timucua burials. These burials eventually pointed to the Park as the location of the first Christian Mission in the United States. Called the Mission of Nombre de Dios, this mission was begun by Franciscan friars in 1587. Succeeding decades have seen the unearthing of items which positively identify the Park as the location of Pedro Menendez de Aviles' 1565 settlement of St. Augustine, the oldest continuously inhabited European settlement in North America. The park currently exhibits native and colonial artifacts to celebrate St. Augustine's Timucua and Spanish heritage. A rumor still exists that, although possibly diluted with city water and treatment, the city of Naples may have part of the mythical fountain's source running through it. Naples has some of the highest population of elderly and least mortality rate.

Author Charlie Carlson claims to have spoken with a supposed St. Augustine-based secret society claiming to be the protectors of the Fountain of Youth, which has granted them extraordinary longevity. They claimed Old John Gomez, a protagonist in the Gasparilla legend from Florida folklore, had been one of their members.^[11]

9.5 Literature and popular culture

The Fountain of Youth serves a metaphor for anything that potentially increases longevity. Nathaniel Hawthorne used the Fountain in "Dr. Heidegger's Experiment"; Orson Welles directed and starred in a 1958 TV program based on the legend; ^[12] and Tim Powers featured it in *On Stranger Tides*. The novel *The Well at the World's End* by William Morris is the story of a quest for a legendary well which has many of the same properties of the Fountain of Youth.

In 1953, The Walt Disney Company released a cartoon entitled "Don's Fountain of Youth", in which Donald Duck supposedly discovers the famous fountain. Seven years later, in "That's no fable!" Carl Barks revisited the myth. "Sweet Duck of Youth", an episode of the later animated series *Duck Tales*, also features this plot.

In 1974, Marvel Comics featured the Fountain (which works if bathed in, but cripples if drunk from) in *Man-Thing* and later *The Savage She-Hulk*. In the 1976 comedy series *Big John, Little John*, a middle-aged man drinks from the Fountain of Youth and then switches back and forth from 12 years old to 43 years old throughout the series. The fountain and its waters form the main plot device in Microsoft and Ensemble Studio's *Age of Empires III* campaign "Blood, Ice and Steel". Recently, characters in the 2006 Darren Aronofsky film *The Fountain* search for the Tree of Life to cure a brain tumor. Jorge Luis Borges refers to the Fountain of Life in a short story in the book *The Aleph*. In Terry Pratchett's *Eric*, Ponce da Quirm finds and drinks from the Fountain of Youth but dies, wishing they had put up a sign saying "Boil first." The novel, *Tuck Everlasting* by Natalie Babbitt and two film adaptions tell of a family that was given eternal youth after drinking from a spring.

Pirates of the Caribbean: On Stranger Tides, the fourth installment of the Pirates of the Caribbean film series, depicts a quest for the Fountain of Youth. It was alluded to at the end of the previous film, where Captain Jack Sparrow had taken the map from Captain Hector Barbossa. In the film, the Fountain requires two people to drink from two silver chalices found on Ponce de León's ship; whoever drinks from the chalice containing a mermaid's tear will take the remaining and lived years of the other drinker's life and add it to their own, curing them of any existing injuries, while the other person instantly dies.

9.6 References

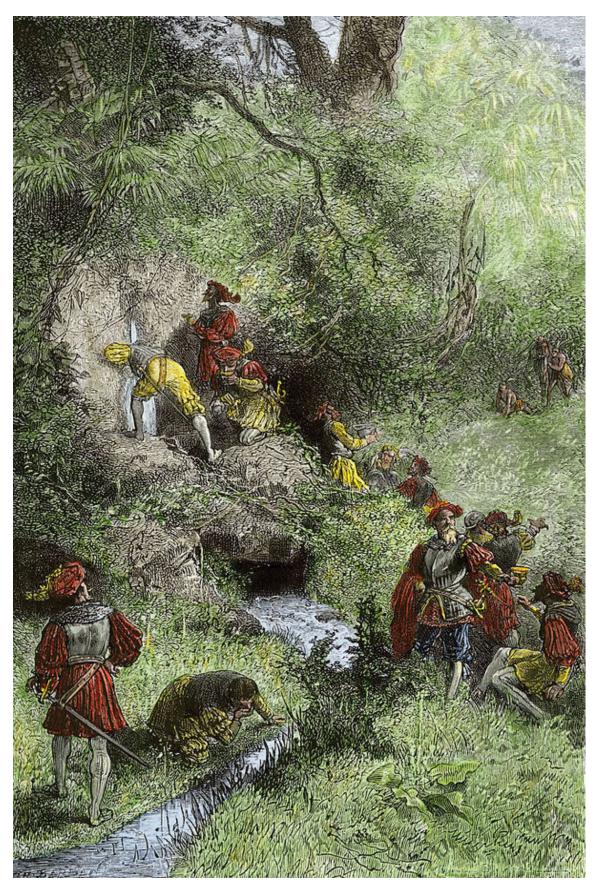
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- [11] Carlson, Charlie (April 7, 2005). Weird Florida. New York. ISBN 0-7607-5945-6.
- [12] The Fountain of Youth, 1958, directed by Orson Welles

The Fountain of Youth , (Treasure of the Celtic Otherworld) B A Boland Volume 2 in the Celtic Esoteric Studies Series

9.7 External links

- Fountain of Youth St. Augustine, Florida
- Memoir of Hernando D'Escalante Fontaneda
- Article on the Fountain of Youth
- Article on Al-Khidr and the Water of Life
- Disney's Pirates of the Caribbean

9.7. EXTERNAL LINKS 43



Juan Ponce de León and their explorers in Florida looking for the Fountain of youth, according to a drawing of the nineteenth century German.

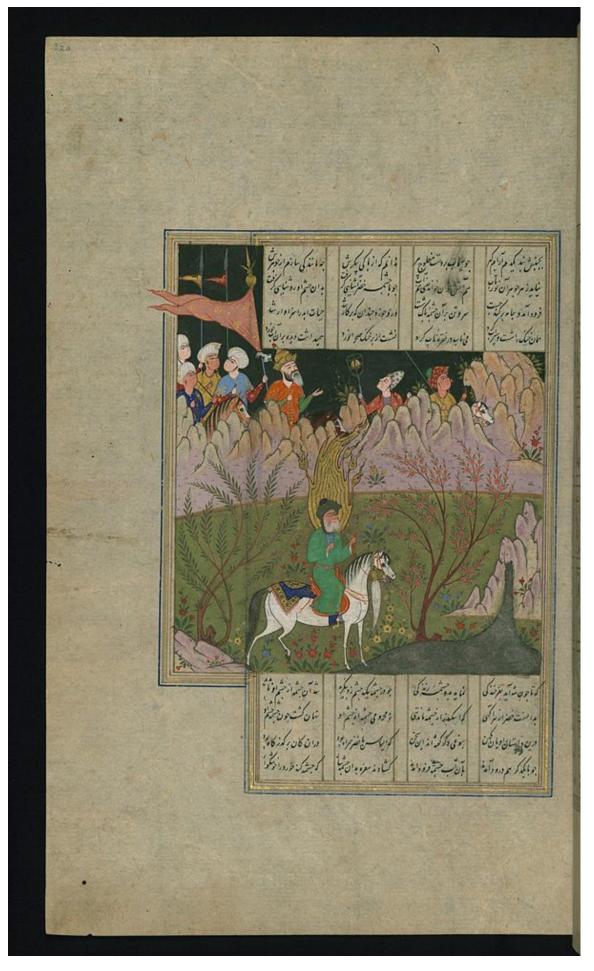


Sebald Beham, woodcut, 1531



Postcard from the Fountain of Youth in St. Augustine

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al-Khiḍr and Alexander the Great in front of the Fountain of Life

Chapter 10

Odin's Globe

Odin's Globe is a fictional artifact that appears in Norse Mythology. Described with different magical attributes in Norse folklore, the common details include is silver color and immense power. Odin had the globe forged by dwarven brothers to help create safe-passage between Asgard and other realms after the Son's of Iylid damaged the rainbow bridge. The artifact was created to forge an intense bond between those traveling to and from Asgard and protect them from enemies and elements of the nine-realms. Throughout the folklore, the artifact has also been described, loosely speaking, as sentient. It grows with its bearer over time to protect them and amplify their talents and abilities. When "activated", the artifact encircles its possessor to create an impenetrable shield.

10.1 Literature

The artifact, known as Mjølnir, is ascribed the following powers: protection, luck, minor telepathy, slow or speed up time, willpower, support, empathy, understanding, wits, health. The globe, much like Thor's Hammer, can only be wielded by the worthy. The unworthy can hold the artifact in their possession, but it will not do anything for the possessor. In the poem, ""Loki's Lunar Lover"", Loki comes into possession of the artifact. Unable to wield its power, Loki tricked the dwarves to modify the artifact to mark the worthy with ash to dirty their good intentions. The demigod Freyr used the artifact to keep his mental faculties when he traveled to the ninth realm, he later planted the globe with tree saplings to speed their growth.

On the third day. The artifact begins to bind with its bearer.

10.2 Appearance

The artifact is known to be silver and hollow in its middle. It can be modified. But it was created to be elegant and could be worn as a simple pendant or jewelry.

10.3 See also

- Ring of Gyges
- Ring of the Nibelung

10.4 References

Chapter 11

Rota Fortunae

The **Wheel of Fortune**, or *Rota Fortunae*, is a concept in medieval and ancient philosophy referring to the capricious nature of Fate. The wheel belongs to the goddess Fortuna, who spins it at random, changing the positions of those on the wheel - some suffer great misfortune, others gain windfalls. Fortune appears on all paintings as a woman, sometimes blindfolded, "puppeteering" a wheel.

11.1 Origins

The origin of the word is from the "wheel of fortune" - the zodiac, referring to the Celestial spheres of which the 8th holds the stars, and the 9th is where the signs of the zodiac are placed. The concept was first invented in Babylon and later developed by the ancient Greeks.

The concept somewhat resembles the *Bhavacakra*, or Wheel of Becoming, depicted throughout Ancient Indian art and literature, except that the earliest conceptions in the Roman and Greek world involve not a two-dimensional wheel but a three-dimensional sphere, a metaphor for the world. It was widely used in the Ptolemaic perception of the universe as the zodiac being a wheel with its "signs" constantly turning throughout the year and having effect on the world's fate (or fortune).

Vettius Valens, a second century BC astronomer and astrologer, wrote:

There are many wheels, most moving from west to east, but some move from east to west. Seven wheels, each hold one heavenly object, the first holds the moon...

Then the eighth wheel holds all the stars that we see...

And the ninth wheel, the wheel of fortunes, moves from east to west, and includes each of the twelve signs of fortune, the twelve signs of the zodiac. Each wheel is inside the other, like an onion's peel sits inside another peel, and there is no empty space between them.

In the same century, the Roman tragedian Pacuvius wrote:

Fortunam insanam esse et caecam et brutam perhibent philosophi,

Saxoque instare in globoso praedicant volubili:

Id quo saxum inpulerit fors, eo cadere Fortunam autumant.

Caecam ob eam rem esse iterant, quia nihil cernat, quo sese adplicet;

Insanam autem esse aiunt, quia atrox, incerta instabilisque sit;

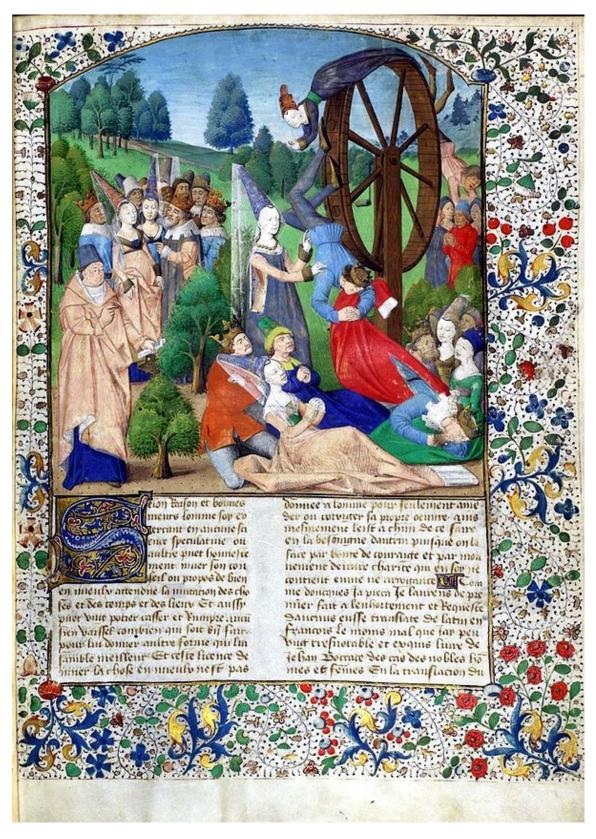
Brutam, quia dignum atque indignum nequeat internoscere.

Philosophers say that Fortune is insane and blind and stupid,

and they teach that she stands on a rolling, spherical rock:

they affirm that, wherever chance pushes that rock, Fortuna falls in that direction.

They repeat that she is blind for this reason: that she does not see where she's heading;



From an edition of Boccaccio's De Casibus Virorum Illustrium showing Lady Fortune spinning her wheel.

they say she's insane, because she is cruel, flaky and unstable;

stupid, because she can't distinguish between the worthy and the unworthy.

—Pacuvius, Scaenicae Romanorum Poesis Fragmenta. Vol. 1, ed. O. Ribbeck, 1897

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DE TRIBVS SVPERIORIBVS. lib& triŭ supioru tres orbes hab& a se diuisos secudu imagia tione triu orbiu Solis. În orbe tame medio geccetric simplicit existit glib& bab& epicyclu i g sicut i Luna tactu est corp? plane te figit. Orbes aut auges deferétes uirtute mot? octaue [pbe/ re sup axe & polis ecliptice mouent. Sed orbis epicyclu deferes sup axe suo axe zodiaci secate secudu successione signou mouet: & poli ei? di / stat a polis zodiaci distatia no egli. Quare fit ut augel eou eccetricou nug ecli ptică ptrăleăt: sed semp ab ea uersus aglone & opposita uersus aust umaneat : THEORICA TRIVM SVPERIOR VM ET VENERIS.

Ptolemaic model of the spheres for Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn with epicycle, eccentric deferent and equant point. Georg von Peuerbach, Theoricae novae planetarum, 1474.

The idea of the rolling ball of fortune became a literary topos and was used frequently in declamation. In fact, the *Rota Fortunae* became a prime example of a trite topos or meme for Tacitus, who mentions its rhetorical overuse in the *Dialogus de oratoribus*.

Fortuna eventually became Christianized: the Roman philosopher Boethius (d. 524) was a major source for the medieval view of the Wheel, writing about it in his *Consolatio Philosophiae* - "I know how Fortune is ever most friendly and alluring to those whom she strives to deceive, until she overwhelms them with grief beyond bearing, by deserting them when least expected. ... Are you trying to stay the force of her turning wheel? Ah! dull-witted mortal, if Fortune begin to stay still, she is no longer Fortune."

~ Boethius, Consolation of Philosophy^[1]

11.2 In the middle ages

11.2.1 Religious instruction

The Wheel was widely used as an allegory in medieval literature and art to aid religious instruction. Though classically Fortune's Wheel could be favourable and disadvantageous, medieval writers preferred to concentrate on the tragic aspect, dwelling on downfall of the mighty - serving to remind people of the temporality of earthly things. In the morality play *Everyman* (c. 1495), for instance, Death comes unexpectedly to claim the protagonist. Fortune's Wheel has spun Everyman low, and Good Deeds, which he previously neglected, are needed to secure his passage to heaven.

Geoffrey Chaucer used the concept of the tragic Wheel of Fortune a great deal. It forms the basis for the Monk's Tale, which recounts stories of the great brought low throughout history, including Lucifer, Adam, Samson, Hercules, Nebuchadnezzar, Belshazzar, Nero, Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar and, in the following passage, Peter I of Cyprus.

O noble Peter, Cyprus' lord and king,

Which Alexander won by mastery,

To many a heathen ruin did'st thou bring;

For this thy lords had so much jealousy,

That, for no crime save thy high chivalry,

All in thy bed they slew thee on a morrow.

And thus does Fortune's wheel turn treacherously

And out of happiness bring men to sorrow.

~ Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales*, The Monk's Tale^[2]

Fortune's Wheel often turns up in medieval art, from manuscripts to the great Rose windows in many medieval cathedrals, which are based on the Wheel. Characteristically, it has four shelves, or stages of life, with four human figures, usually labeled on the left regnabo (I shall reign), on the top regno (I reign) and is usually crowned, descending on the right regnavi (I have reigned) and the lowly figure on the bottom is marked $sum\ sine\ regno$ (I am without a kingdom). Dante employed the Wheel in the Inferno and a "Wheel of Fortune" trump-card appeared in the Tarot deck (circa 1440, Italy).

11.2.2 Political instruction

In the medieval and renaissance period, a popular genre of writing was "Mirrors for Princes", which set out advice for the ruling classes on how to wield power (the most famous being *The Prince* by Niccolò Machiavelli). Such political treatises could use the concept of the Wheel of Fortune as an instructive guide to their readers. John Lydgate's *Fall of Princes*, written for his patron Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester is a noteworthy example.

Many Arthurian romances of the era also use the concept of the Wheel in this manner, often placing the Nine Worthies on it at various points.

...fortune is so variant, and the wheel so moveable, there nis none constant abiding, and that may be proved by many old chronicles, of noble Hector, and Troilus, and Alisander, the mighty conqueror, and many mo other; when they were most in their royalty, they alighted lowest. ~ Lancelot in Thomas Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*, Chapter XVII.^[3]

11.3. LATER USAGE 51

Like the Mirrors for Princes, this could be used to convey advice to readers. For instance, in most romances, Arthur's greatest military achievement - the conquest of the Roman Empire - is placed late on in the overall story. However in Malory's work the Roman conquest and high point of King Arthur's reign is established very early on. Thus, everything that follows is something of a decline. Arthur, Lancelot and the other Knights of the Round Table are meant to be the paragons of chivalry, yet in Malory's telling of the story they are doomed to failure. In medieval thinking, only God was perfect, and even a great figure like King Arthur had to be brought low. For the noble reader of the tale in the Middle Ages, this moral could serve as a warning, but also as something to aspire to. Malory could be using the concept of Fortune's Wheel to imply that if even the greatest of chivalric knights made mistakes, then a normal fifteenth-century noble didn't have to be a paragon of virtue in order to be a good knight.

11.2.3 Carmina Burana

The Wheel of Fortune motif appears significantly in the *Carmina Burana* (or *Burana Codex*), albeit with a postclassical phonetic spelling of the genitive form *Fortunae*. Excerpts from two of the collection's better known poems, "*Fortuna Imperatrix Mundi* (Fortune, Empress of the World)" and "*Fortune Plango Vulnera* (I Bemoan the Wounds of Fortune)," read:

11.3 Later usage

Fortune and her Wheel have remained an enduring image throughout history. Fortune's wheel can also be found in Thomas More's *Utopia*.

11.3.1 Shakespeare

William Shakespeare in *Hamlet* wrote of the "slings and arrows of outrageous fortune" and, of fortune personified, to "break all the spokes and fellies from her wheel." And in *Henry V*, Act 3 Scene $VI^{[4]}$ are the lines:

Pistol:

Bardolph, a soldier who is loyal and stout-hearted and full of valour, has, by a cruel trick of fate and a turn of silly Fortune's wildly spinning wheel, that blind goddess who stands upon an ever-rolling stone—

Fluellen:

Now, now, Ensign Pistol. Fortune is depicted as blind, with a scarf over her eyes, to signify that she is blind. And she is depicted with a wheel to signify—this is the point—that she is turning and inconstant, and all about change and variation. And her foot, see, is planted on a spherical stone that rolls and rolls and rolls.

Shakespeare also references this Wheel in *King Lear*.^[5] The Earl of Kent, who was once held dear by the King, has been banished, only to return in disguise. This disguised character is placed in the stocks for an overnight and laments this turn of events at the end of Act II, Scene 2:

Fortune, good night, smile once more; turn thy wheel!

In Act IV, scene vii, King Lear also contrasts his misery on the "wheel of fire" to Cordelia's "soul in bliss".

Shakespeare also made reference to this in "Macbeth" throughout the whole play. Macbeth starts off halfway up the wheel when a Thane, but moves higher and higher until he becomes king, but falls right down again towards the end as his wife dies, and he in turn dies.

11.3.2 Victorian era

In Anthony Trollope's novel *The Way We Live Now*, the character Lady Carbury writes a novel entitled "The Wheel of Fortune" about a heroine who suffers great financial hardships.

11.3.3 Modern day

Selections from the *Carmina Burana*, including the two poems quoted above, were set to new music by twentieth-century classical composer Carl Orff, whose well-known "O Fortuna" is based on the poem *Fortuna Imperatrix Mundi*.

Jerry Garcia recorded a song entitled "The Wheel" (co-written with Robert Hunter and Bill Kreutzmann) for his 1972 solo album *Garcia*, and performed the song regularly with the Grateful Dead from 1976 onward.

The song "Wheel In The Sky" by Journey from their 1978 release *Infinity* also touches on the concept through the lyrics "Wheel in the sky keeps on turnin' / I don't know where I'll be tomorrow".

The song "Throw Your Hatred Down" by Neil Young on his 1995 album *Mirror Ball*, recorded with Pearl Jam, has the verse "*The wheel of fortune / Keeps on rollin' down*".

The term has found its way into modern popular culture through the *Wheel of Fortune* game show, where contestants win or lose money determined by the random spin of a wheel. Also, the video game series character Kain (Legacy of Kain) used the wheel of fate.

Fortuna does occasionally turn up in modern literature, although these days she has become more or less synonymous with Lady Luck. Her Wheel is less widely used as a symbol, and has been replaced largely by a reputation for fickleness. She is often associated with gamblers, and dice could also be said to have replaced the Wheel as the primary metaphor for uncertain fortune.

The Hudsucker Proxy, a film by the Coen Brothers, also uses the Rota Fortunae concept and in the TV series Firefly (2002) the main character, Malcolm Reynolds, says "The Wheel never stops turning, Badger" to which Badger replies "That only matters to the people on the rim". Likewise, a physical version of the Wheel of Fortune is used in Mad Max Beyond Thunderdome, a film by George Miller and George Ogilvie. In the movie, the title character reneges on a contract and is told "bust a deal, face the wheel." In the science fiction TV series Farscape, the fourth episode of the fourth season has main character Crichton mention that his grandmother told him that fate was like a wheel, alternately bringing fortunes up and down, and the episode's title also references this. Unlike many other instances of the wheel of fortune analogy, which focus on tragic falls from good fortune, Crichton's version is notably more positive, and meant as a message of endurance: those suffering from bad fortune must remain strong and "wait for the wheel" of fortune to turn back to eventually turn back to good fortune again.

Ignatius J. Reilly, the central character from John Kennedy Toole's novel *A Confederacy of Dunces*, states that he believes the Rota Fortunae to be the source of all man's fate.

In the *Fable* video game series, the wheel of fortune appears twice, somehow perverted. The Wheel of Unholy Misfortune is a torture device in *Fable II*. It is found in the Temple of Shadows in Rookridge. The Hero can use the wheel to sacrifice followers to the shadows. In *Fable III*, Reaver's Wheel of Misfortune is a device that, once activated, sends to The Hero a round of random monsters.

The Wheel of Fortune is featured in a *Magic: the Gathering* card by that name that forces all players to discard their hands and draw new ones.

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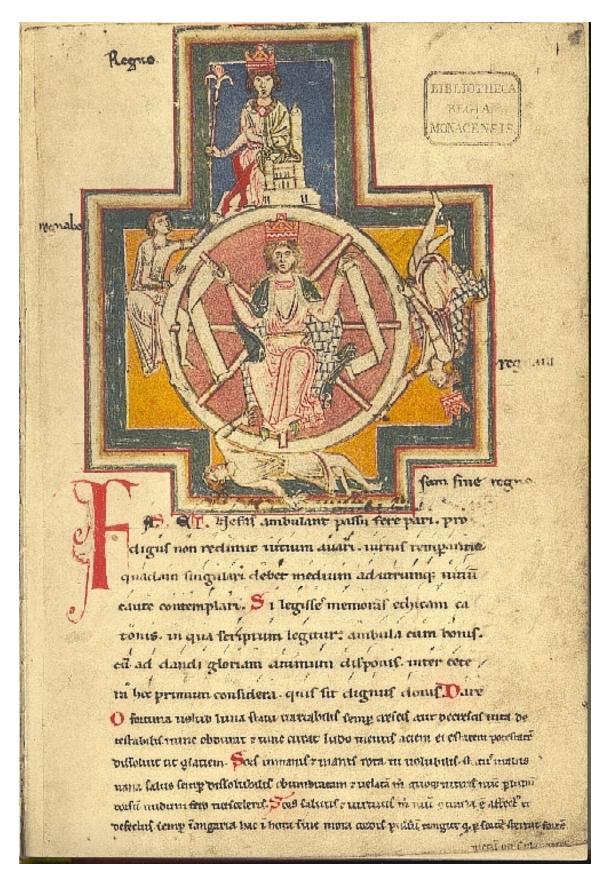
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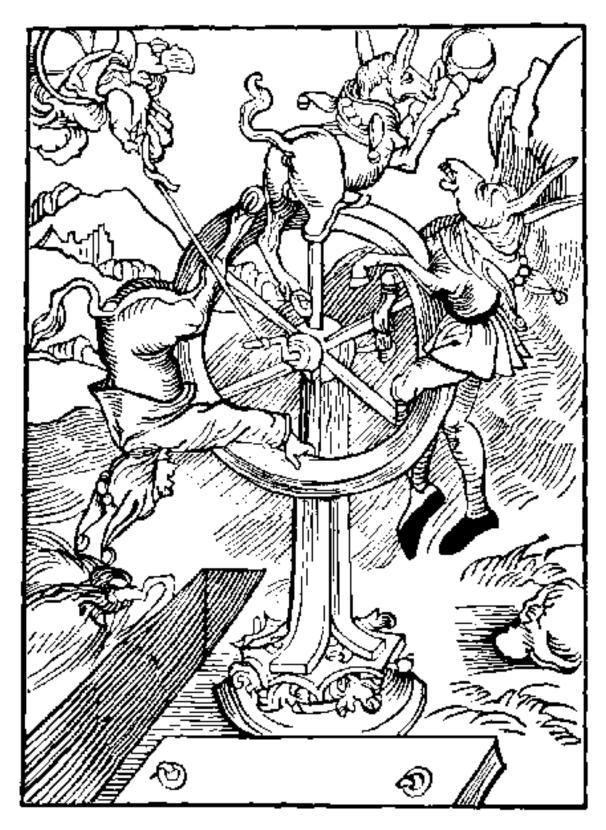
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The wheel of fortune from the Burana Codex; The figures are labelled "Regno, Regnavi, Sum sine regno, Regnabo": I reign, I reigned, My reign is finished, I shall reign



Wheel of fortune in Sebastian Brant's Narrenschiff, woodcut by A. Dürer

Chapter 12

Round Table

For other uses, see Round Table (disambiguation).

The **Round Table** is King Arthur's famed table in the Arthurian legend, around which he and his Knights congregate. As its name suggests, it has no head, implying that everyone who sits there has equal status. The table was first described in 1155 by Wace, who relied on previous depictions of Arthur's fabulous retinue. The symbolism of the Round Table developed over time; by the close of the 12th century it had come to represent the chivalric order associated with Arthur's court, the **Knights of the Round Table**.

12.1 History

The Round Table first appears in Wace's *Roman de Brut*, a Norman language adaptation of Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Historia Regum Britanniae* finished in 1155. Wace says Arthur created the Round Table to prevent quarrels among his barons, none of whom would accept a lower place than the others.^[1] Layamon added to the story when he adapted Wace's work into the Middle English *Brut* in the early 13th century, saying that the quarrel between Arthur's vassals led to violence at a Yuletide feast. In response a Cornish carpenter built an enormous but easily transportable Round Table to prevent further dispute.^[1] Wace claims he was not the source of the Round Table; both he and Layamon credit it instead to the Bretons. Some scholars have doubted this claim, while others believe it may be true.^[1] There is some similarity between the chroniclers' description of the Round Table and a custom recorded in Celtic stories, in which warriors sit in a circle around the king or lead warrior, in some cases feuding over the order of precedence as in Layamon.^[1] There is a possibility that Wace, contrary to his own claims, derived Arthur's round table not from any Breton source, but rather from medieval biographies of Charlemagne—notably Einhard's *Vita Caroli* and Notker the Stammerer's *De Carolo Magno*—in which the king is said to have possessed a round table decorated with a map of Rome.^[2]

Though the Round Table itself is not mentioned until Wace, the concept of Arthur having a marvelous court made up of many prominent warriors is much older. Geoffrey of Monmouth says that after establishing peace throughout Britain, Arthur "increased his personal entourage by inviting very distinguished men from far-distant kingdoms to join it." The code of chivalry so important in later romance figures in as well, as Geoffrey says Arthur established "such a code of courtliness in his household that he inspired peoples living far away to imitate him." Long before Geoffrey, Arthur's court was well known to Welsh storytellers; in the romance *Culhwch and Olwen*, written around 1100, the protagonist Culhwch invokes the names of 225 individuals affiliated with Arthur. In fact, the fame of Arthur's entourage became so prominent in Welsh tradition that in the later additions to the Welsh Triads, the formula tying named individuals to "Arthur's Court" in the triad titles began to supersede the older "Island of Britain" formula. Though the code of chivalry crucial to later continental romances dealing with the Round Table is mostly absent from the earlier Welsh material, some passages of *Culhwch and Olwen* seem to prefigure it, for instance when Arthur explains the ethos of his court, saying "[w]e are nobles as long as we are sought out: the greater the bounty we may give, the greater our nobility, fame and honour." for instance of the continent in the greater our nobility, fame and honour."

Though no Round Table appears in the early Welsh texts, Arthur is associated with various items of household furniture. The earliest of these is Saint Carannog's mystical floating altar in that saint's 12th century *Vita*; in the story Arthur has found the altar and attempts unsuccessfully to use it for a table, and returns it to Carannog in

exchange for the saint ridding the land of a meddlesome dragon. Arthur's household furniture figures into local topographical folklore throughout Britain as early as the early 12th century, with various landmarks being named "Arthur's Seat", "Arthur's Oven," and "Arthur's Bed-chamber. A henge at Eamont Bridge near Penrith, Cumbria is known as "King Arthur's Round Table". The still-visible Roman amphitheatre at Caerleon has been associated with the Round Table.

In 2010, following archaeological discoveries at the Roman ruins in Chester, some writers suggested that the Chester Roman Amphitheatre was the true prototype of the Round Table^[12] but the English Heritage Commission, acting as consultants to a History Channel documentary in which the claim was made, declared that there was no archaeological basis to the story.^[13]

12.2 Later development



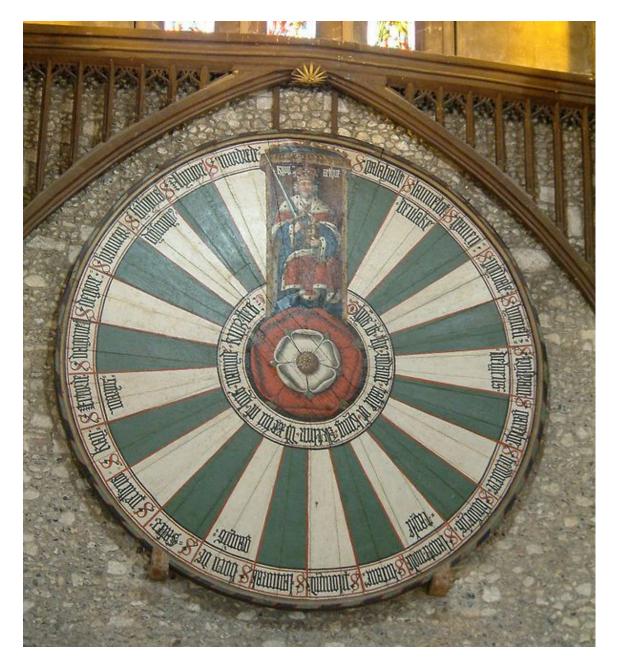
Sir Galahad takes the "Siege Perilous"

The Round Table takes on new dimensions in the romances of the late 12th and early 13th century, where it becomes a symbol of the famed order of chivalry which flourishes under Arthur. In Robert de Boron's *Merlin*, written around the 1190s, the wizard Merlin creates the Round Table in imitation of the table of the Last Supper and of Joseph of Arimathea's Holy Grail table. This table, here made for Arthur's father Uther Pendragon rather than Arthur himself, has twelve seats and one empty place to mark the betrayal of Judas. This seat must remain empty until the coming of the knight who will achieve the Grail. The Didot *Perceval*, a prose continuation of Robert's work, takes up the story, and the knight Percival sits in the seat and initiates the Grail quest. [1]

The prose cycles of the 13th century, the Lancelot-Grail cycle and the Post-Vulgate Cycle, further adapt the chivalric attributes of the Round Table. Here it is the perfect knight Galahad, rather than Percival, who assumes the empty seat, now called the Siege Perilous. Galahad's arrival marks the start of the Grail quest as well as the end of the Arthurian era. [1] In these works the Round Table is kept by King Leodegrance of Cameliard after Uther's death; Arthur inherits

it when he marries Leodegrance's daughter Guinevere. Other versions treat the Round Table differently, for instance Italian Arthurian works often distinguish between the "Old Table" of Uther's time and Arthur's "New Table." [14]

12.3 Round Table tournaments



Winchester Round Table

Main article: Round Table (tournament)

During the Middle Ages, festivals called Round Tables were celebrated throughout Europe in imitation of Arthur's court. These events featured jousting, dancing, and feasting, and in some cases attending knights assumed the identities of Arthur's entourage. [15] The earliest of these was held in Cyprus in 1223 to celebrate a knighting. Round Tables were popular in various European countries through the rest of the Middle Ages and were at times very elaborate; René of Anjou even erected an Arthurian castle for his 1446 Round Table. [15] On December 19, 1566, Mary, Queen of Scots gave a feast in Stirling Castle with 30 guests at an imagined replica of Arthur's table during the masque-themed celebrations of the baptism of the future James VI. [16][17]

12.3.1 Winchester Round Table

The artifact known as the "Winchester Round Table," a large tabletop hanging in Winchester Castle bearing the names of various knights of Arthur's court, was probably created for a Round Table tournament. The current paintwork is late; it was done by order of Henry VIII of England for Holy Roman Emperor Charles V's 1522 state visit, and depicts Henry himself sitting in Arthur's seat above a Tudor rose. The table itself is considerably older; dendrochronology calculates the date of construction to 1250–1280—during the reign of Edward I—using timber from store felled over a period of years. Edward was an Arthurian enthusiast who attended at least five Round Tables and hosted one himself in 1299, which may have been the occasion for the creation of the Winchester Round Table. Martin Biddle, from an examination of Edward's financial accounts, links it instead with a tournament Edward held near Winchester on April 20, 1290, to mark the betrothal of one of his daughters. [20]

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12.6 External links

- Timeless Myths Knights of the Round Table
- The 14th Century Round Table in Winchester, Hampshire. UK

Chapter 13

Siege Perilous

For other uses, see Siege Perilous (disambiguation).

In Arthurian legend, the Siege Perilous (also known as The Perilous Seat) is a vacant seat at the Round Table



Sir Galahad sits at the Siege Perilous, 15th-century French manuscript.

reserved by Merlin for the knight who would one day be successful in the quest for the Holy Grail.^[1] This knight is either Percival or Sir Galahad, depending on the version of the story. The Siege Perilous is so strictly reserved that it is fatal to anyone else who sits in it.

In Thomas Malory's *Le Morte D'Arthur*, the newly knighted Sir Galahad takes the seat in Camelot on Whitsunday, 454 years after the death of Jesus.

Another version of this story is related in Alfred, Lord Tennyson's Idylls of the King. [2]

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